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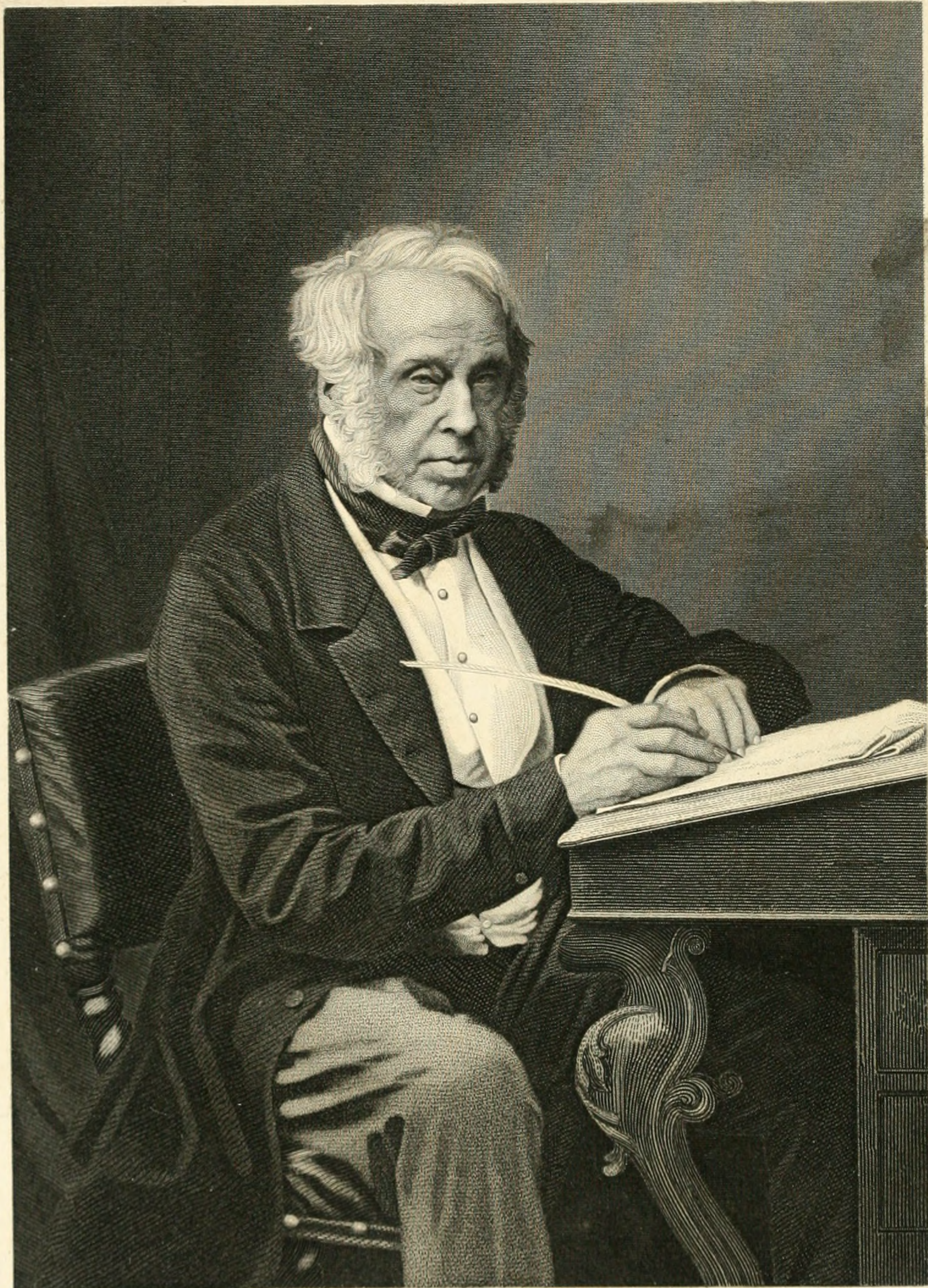

Palmerston

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Portrait Gallery of Eminent Men and Women

with Biographies

by E. A. Duyckinck.

Vol. 2.

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PORTRAIT GALLERY

OF EMINENT

MEN AND WOMEN

OF

EUROPE AND AMERICA.

EMBRACING

HISTORY, STATESMANSHIP, NAVAL AND MILITARY LIFE, PHILOSOPHY,
THE DRAMA, SCIENCE, LITERATURE AND ART.

WITH

BIOGRAPHIES.

BY

EVERT A. DUYCKINCK,

AUTHOR OF "PORTRAIT GALLERY OF EMINENT AMERICANS," "CYCLOPEDIA OF AMERICAN LITERATURE," "HISTORY OF THE WAR FOR THE UNION," ETC., ETC.

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FROM

ORIGINAL PORTRAITS BY THE MOST CELEBRATED ARTISTS.

IN TWO VOLUMES.—VOL. II.

NEW YORK:
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ELIZA COOK.

THIS lady, the daughter of a respectable English tradesman, was born about the year 1818, and early in life became known to the public by her contributions in verse to various periodicals in London, including the "New Monthly Magazine," the "Metropolitan," and the "Literary Gazette."

In 1840, after her reputation was established, an illustrated edition of her writings was published in London entitled "Melaia, and other Poems"—a volume which includes most of the compositions by which she is best known in America. As many of these are of a lyrical character—indeed, it is in that capacity that her genius is chiefly to be recognized—they have become in the hands of favoriie singers and reciters "familiar as household words." Foremost among these undoubtedly in point of popularity ranks "The Old Arm Chair," which has touched thousands of hearts by its picture of household affection and piety.

I love it, I love it; and who shall dare
To chide me for loving that old arm-chair?
I've treasured it long as a sainted prize,
I've bedew'd it with tears, and embalm'd it with sighs;
'Tis bound by a thousand bands to my heart;
Not a tie will break, not a link will start.

Would ye learn the spell? a mother sat there,
And a sacred thing is that old arm-chair.

In childhood's hour I linger'd near
The hallow'd seat with list'ning ear;
And gentle words that mother would give,
To fit me to die and teach me to live.
She told me shame would never betide,
With truth for my creed and God for my guide;
She taught me to lisp my earliest prayer,
As I knelt beside that old arm-chair.

I sat and watched her many a day,
When her eye grew dim, and her locks were grey;
And I almost worshipp'd her when she smil'd
And turn'd from her Bible to bless her child.
Years roll'd on, but the last one sped—
My idol was shatter'd, my earth-star fled;
I learnt how much the heart can bear,
When I saw her die in that old arm-chair.

'Tis past! 'tis past! but I gaze on it now
With quivering breath and throbbing brow:
'Twas there she nursed me, 'twas there she died;
And memory flows with lava tide.
Say it is folly, and deem me weak,
While the scalding drops start down my cheek;
But I love it, I love it, and cannot tear
My soul from a mother's old arm-chair.

The effect of this and many kindred poems by the author is produced rather by a swelling tide of natural emotion, based upon some simple heartfelt incident, than by the exercise of any con-

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Eliza Cook

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summate literary art. The poems of Miss Cook, indeed, seem always the expression of a happy, healthy nature, prompt to display itself in lyric utterances. Her muse never goes far to seek for a subject; its inspiration is found in the common scenes and thoughts of every-day life, of the daughters and mothers of England. Life and death, patriotic aspirations, religious fervors, the charms of nature; but, above all, the home affections, supply the materials for her apparently spontaneous verse. Whatever she has written has the stamp of a genuine natural enthusiasm, coming warm from the heart. Occasionally, when some romantic incident is unfolded, as in her longer narrative poems "Melaia," and the tale of "Tracy de Vere and Hubert Grey," it will be found that the motive is supplied by some tender outburst of affection, as in the former, the devoted faithfulness of the dog to his owner; and, in the latter, the loving relation between the peasant and the feudal lord. The simple rapid movement in these poems shows a capacity in the author for prolonged narratives, somewhat in the vein of Scott or Byron. The description of the solitude of the desert in the flight of Melaia would do no discredit to the latter in its contrast of emotion.

"The whirling blast, the breaker's dash,
The snapping ropes, the parting crash,
The sweeping waves that boil and lash,
The stunning peal, the hissing flash,
The hasty prayer, the hopeless groan,
The stripling sea-boy's gurgling tone,
Shrieking amid the flood and foam,
The names of mother, love and home;
The jarring clash that wakes the land,
When, blade to blade, and hand to hand,
Unnumber'd voices burst and swell,
In one unceasing war-whoop yell;
The trump of discord ringing out,
The clamor strife, the victor shout;—
Oh! these are noises any ear
Will dread to meet and quail to hear;
But let the earth or waters pour
The loudest din or wildest roar;
Let Anarchy's broad thunders roll,
And Tumult do its worst to thrill,
There is a *silence* to the soul
More awful, and more startling still.

"To hear our very breath intrude
Upon the boundless solitude,
Where mortal tidings never come,
With busy feet or human hum;
All hush'd above, beneath, around—
No stirring form, no whisper'd sound;—
This is a loneliness that falls
Upon the spirit, and appals
More than the mingled rude alarms
Arising from a world in arms."

Writing almost exclusively for the instant demands of the newspaper or periodical press, Miss Cook has seldom attempted compositions of length. On the other hand, she has not sacrificed her genius to the preparation of merely occasional verses to live and die with the passing topics of the hour. Her verses are generally of permanent interest, touching upon themes such as we have indicated, which never grow old. With what a natural delight she hails the coming of Spring in this animated strain:

"Welcome, all hail to thee!
Welcome, young spring!
Thy sun-ray is bright
On the butterfly's wing.
Beauty shines forth
In the blossom-robed trees;
Perfume floats by
On the soft southern breeze.

"Music, sweet music,
Sounds over the earth;
One glad choral song
Greets the primrose's birth;

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The lark soars above,
With its shrill matin strain;
The shepherd boy tunes
His reed pipe on the plain.

"Music, sweet music,
Cheers meadow and lea;—
In the song of the blackbird,
The hum of the bee:
The loud happy laughter
Of children at play
Proclaim how they worship
Spring's beautiful day."

With what glee she celebrates the praises of the Horse:

"Behold him free on his native sod
Looking fit for the sun-god's car;
With a skin as sleek as a maiden's cheek
And an eye like the Polar star."

And how on more than one occasion she is inspired by the suggestions of the Sea and the Sailor's life, as in her "Song of the Mariners:"

"Choose ye who will earth's dazzling bowers,
But the great and glorious sea be ours;
Give us, give us the dolphin's home,
With the speeding keel and splashing foam:
Right merry are we as the sound bark springs
On her lonely track like a creature of wings.
Oh, the mariner's life is blythe and gay,
When the sky is fair and the ship on her way."

Occasionally we meet in the volumes of our authoress poems of a more sombre character; but even here, as in the case of the poem on "The Sexton," the subject is relieved by a certain animation in the verse.

"'Mine is the fame most blazon'd of all;
Mine is the goodliest trade;
Never was banner so wide as the pall,
Nor sceptre so fear'd as the spade.'

"This is the lay of the sexton grey—
King of the churchyard he—
While the mournful knell of the tolling bell
Chimes in with his burden of glee.

* * * * *

"He digs the grave, and his chaunt will break
As he gains a fathom deep—
'Whoever lies in the bed I make
I warrant will soundly sleep.'

"He piles the sod, he raises the stone,
He clips the cypress tree;
But whate'er his task, 'tis plied alone—
No fellowship holds he."

To the "Dispatch," originally established as a sporting paper by Mr. Bell, in London, and which, by the vigor of its political articles, attained a large circulation, Miss Cook was a frequent contributor, furnishing, for a considerable part of the time, a poem weekly between the years 1836 and 1850. In 1849, she established a paper of her own, entitled "Eliza Cook's Journal," which was continued weekly till 1854, when it was given up in consequence of her failing health. A volume of selections from her papers in this periodical, entitled "Jottings from my Journal," was published by Routledge in 1860. This gathering of articles on topics of every-day life and manners is of a light, amusing, yet useful and practical character, and shows the authoress to be as clever in prose as in poetry. Various other volumes have proceeded from her pen, chiefly collections of her Poems; a Christmas volume in 1860, and "New Echoes and Other Poems" in 1864. In this latter year her name was placed on the literary pension list of the English government.

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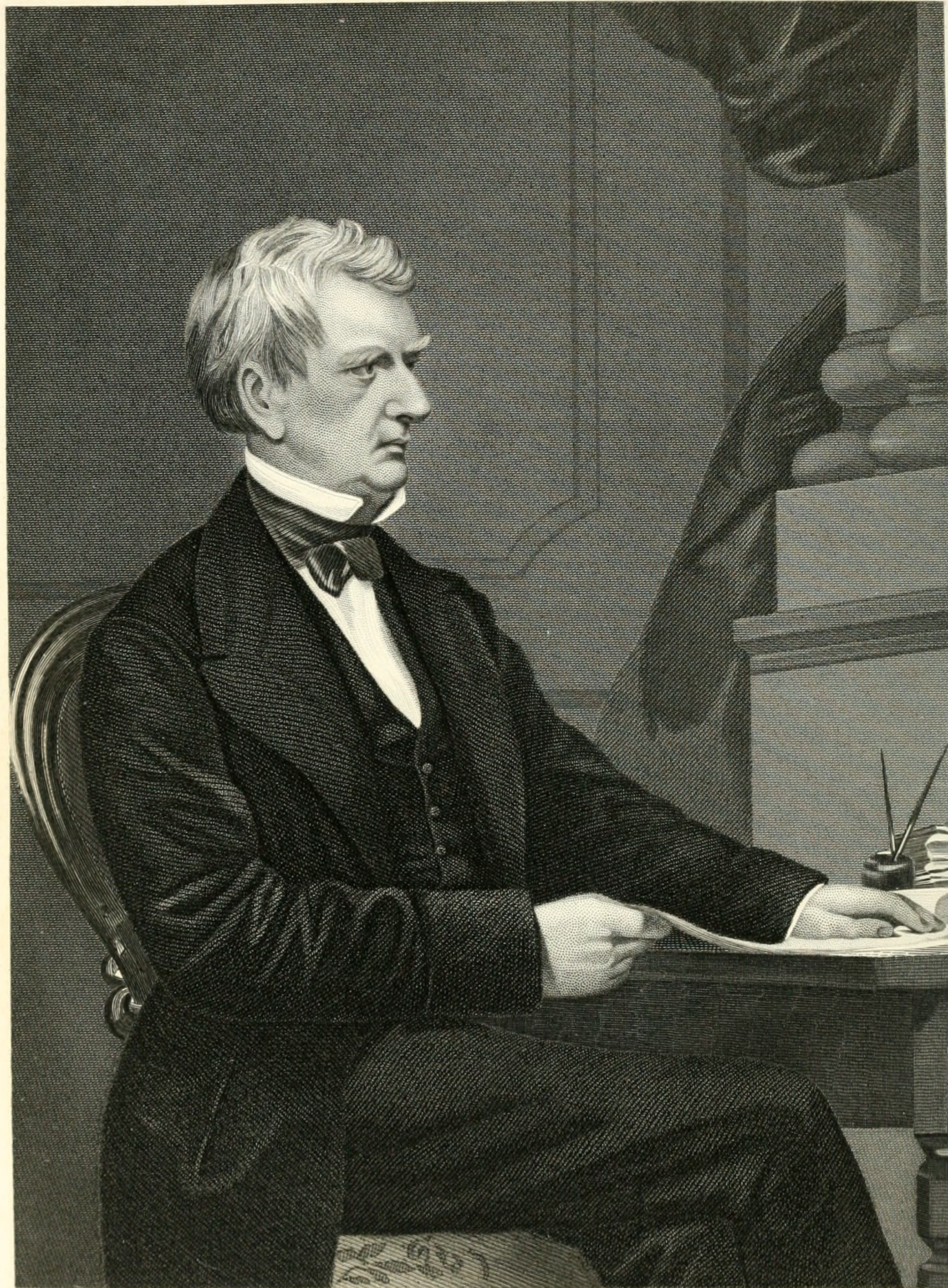

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William H. Seward

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WILLIAM HENRY SEWARD.

THE family of this eminent statesman is traced to a Welsh ancestor, who came to Connecticut in the reign of Queen Anne. A branch of this parent stock removed to New Jersey, where, during the War of the Revolution, Colonel John Seward, the grandfather of the subject of this notice, sustained the character of a zealous patriot, and supporter of the army of Washington. His son, Samuel S. Seward, received a liberal education, studied medicine; and, marrying Mary Jennings, the daughter of Isaac Jennings, of Goshen, New York, removed in 1795, to Florida, a village in the town of Warwick, Orange County, in that State; where, we are told, he "combined a large mercantile business with an extensive range of professional practice, both of which he carried on successfully for the space of twenty years, when he retired from active business and devoted himself to the cultivation of the estate, of which, by constant industry and economy, he became the owner." Dr. Seward, an active member of the Republican party of his day, held several offices of public trust, as a member of the legislature, and was, for many years, first judge of his county. His public spirit was shown in his endowment of a high school or seminary at Florida which was named after him, the Seward Institute. He died at an advanced age in 1849, having survived his wife a few years.

Of this parentage William Henry Seward was born, at the family dwelling, in Florida, May 16th, 1801. A precocious student, and lover of learning in his childhood, he attended such schools as the neighborhood afforded until the age of nine, when he was sent to Farmer's Hall Academy at Goshen, where he pursued his studies, and at an academy afterwards established in Florida, until his fifteenth year, when his proficiency was such that, on presenting himself for admission to Union College, Schenectady, he was found qualified for admission to the Junior Class, though on account of his youth he entered the Sophomore. His college career was marked by great industry and ability. His favorite studies, we are told by his biographer, were rhetoric, moral philosophy, and the ancient classics. It was his custom to rise at four o'clock in the morning and prepare all the lessons of the day, while at night he occupied his leisure with gene-

ral reading and literary compositions for declamation or debate in society meetings for which he had early displayed a great aptitude. While in the Senior Class, in his eighteenth year, he was almost a year from the college, six months of which were passed as a teacher in the State of Georgia. The opinions on the subject of slavery which, in so marked a manner, governed his political career, are said to have had their origin or been greatly strengthened by his experience at this time. Returning to college, he graduated with distinguished eclat. The subject of his commencement oration, "The Integrity of the American Union," proved, though in an unexpected manner, significant of his career.

Mr. Seward now applied himself to the study of the law, in which he had the guidance of three eminent counsellors of the State, John Anthon, John Duer, and Ogden Hoffman. He was admitted to the bar of the Supreme Court, at Utica, in 1822, and early in the following year took up his residence in Auburn, where he was associated in business with an eminent member of the profession, Elijah Miller, then first judge of Cayuga County, whose daughter he married in 1824. Devoting himself assiduously to his profession, the debating talent of Mr. Seward, and his ability as a public speaker, displayed in numerous popular addresses, naturally drew him into political life. Opposed to the Albany Regency, the Democratic organization which was then all-powerful in the State, he entered upon a career of opposition which in due time led to his leadership of the new Whig party. In 1830, he was elected a member of the State Senate, being, it is said, the youngest member that up to that time had entered that body. He now became prominently known by his support of the policy of internal improvement, his advocacy of the abolition of imprisonment for debt, and other liberal measures. In 1833, he visited England and France, and other portions of the continent of Europe, sending home a series of descriptive letters which were afterward published in the "Albany Evening Journal." In 1834, he was a candidate for Governor of the State, but lost the election. Nominated a second time in 1838, the Whig party, for the first time being now in the ascendant, he was chosen by a majority exceeding ten thousand. Again elected in 1840, at the expiration of his second term, he declined a renomination, and retired from the office. The four years which he thus passed in this important position were marked by unwearied mental activity, and diligence in discharge of the duties of the office. Besides his furtherance of the system of internal improvements now so rapidly developing the fortunes of the State, he was prominently interested in a new and more popular organization of the public schools, which in its operation upon the existing system in the city of New York, being thought to favor certain claims of the Roman Catholics, gave rise to no little opposition on the part of the so-called Protestant interest. In the complicated questions of international law growing out of the McLeod case, he sustained the rights of the country and the State. On his retirement from the office of Governor, Mr.

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Seward resumed the practice of the law at Auburn, from which he was called in 1849, by his election to the United States Senate. In this new sphere of duty he acted on a larger theatre the character for usefulness which he had established as State Governor, advocating all means of increasing the resources of the country, opening the public lands to settlers, promoting the Pacific Railroad, and other national internal improvements; while he kept steadily in view the great principles of freedom with which his public life was identified.

It was the period of renewed agitation of the relations of the Government to slavery, growing out of the acquisition of territory in the recent war with Mexico. To guard the vast territory of the West, now stretching to the Pacific, from the encroachments of the slave power, was the work of the political leaders of the country—prominent among whom was Mr. Seward—pledged to the support of a national policy of freedom. The debates on the admission of California gave the new Senator an opportunity to display his peculiar powers. In his able philosophical speech on that occasion, delivered March 11th, 1850, he employed a phrase, *The Higher Law*, which was taken hold of by his opponents, who endeavored to fasten it as a term of reproach upon his party, as if it had been uttered in opposition to the legal claims of the Constitution. It was, in fact, brought forward by him in support of his interpretation of that instrument. Speaking of the power of Congress over the territories, "The Constitution," said he, "regulates our stewardship; the Constitution devotes the domain to union, to justice, to defence, to welfare, and to liberty. But there is a Higher Law than the Constitution, which regulates our authority over the domain, and devotes it to the same noble purposes. The territory is a part, no inconsiderable part, of the common heritage of mankind, bestowed upon them by the Creator of the universe. We are his stewards, and must so discharge our trust as to secure in the highest attainable degree their happiness." The statesmen who create the popular watchwords are invariably thinkers, of philosophic perceptions and powers; and, like all philosophers of fertile minds, accustomed to affairs where energy is demanded, their genius has a tendency to express itself in epigrammatic form. Calhoun was a speaker of this stamp, John Randolph another; and Mr. Seward, whether in speaking or writing, was constantly making points which are remembered. Seldom have two words had a profounder signification or been more portentous as a warning of the future than the simple phrase "irrepressible conflict" which he introduced in a speech at Rochester, New York, during the Congressional elections of 1858. He had now, through the administrations of Presidents Filmore, Pierce, and the first half of Mr. Buchanan's term of office, in opposition to the Fugitive Slave Law, to the repeal of the Missouri Compromise, in the passage of the Kansas and Nebraska Bill, to the attempt to force the Lecompton Constitution upon Kansas, in the Senate and out of it, opposed every measure favoring the extension of the slave power over the virgin free soil of the

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nation, and he on this occasion reminded the country anew of the war of principles upon which it had, of necessity, entered. "Hitherto," said he, in words whose prophetic force he himself probably did not then fully anticipate, "the two systems (slave and free labor) have existed in different States, but side by side, within the American Union. This has happened because the Union is a confederation of States. But in another aspect the United States constitute only one nation. Increase of population, which is filling the States out to their very borders, together with a new and extended net-work of railroads and other avenues, and an internal commerce which daily becomes more intimate, are rapidly bringing the States into a higher and more perfect social unity, or consolidation. Thus these antagonistic systems are continually coming into closer contact; and collision results.

"Shall I tell you what this collision means? They who think that it is accidental, unnecessary, the work of interested or fanatical agitators, and therefore ephemeral, mistake the case altogether. It is an irrepressible conflict between opposing and enduring forces, and it means that the United States must and will, sooner or later, become either entirely a slave-holding nation, or entirely a free-labor nation." That nothing revolutionary, of the character of the civil war afterwards brought about, was at this time favored or even imagined by the speaker, we may infer from the qualification which he added, expressly to guard against misapprehension. "If," said he, "these States are to again become universally slave-holding, I do not pretend to say with what violations of the Constitution that end shall be accomplished. On the other hand, while I do confidently believe and hope that my country will yet become a land of universal freedom, I do not expect that it will be made so otherwise than through the action of the several States coöperating with the federal government, and all acting in strict conformity with their respective Constitutions."

Previous to the close of his second senatorial term, Mr. Seward, in 1859, paid a second visit to Europe, extending his tour to Egypt and the Holy Land. He was now looked upon as a prominent candidate of the new Republican party for the Presidency, as indeed, he had been regarded by many at the previous election. He had then given his support to Fremont, as he had to Scott in 1852. In 1860, he was supported at the nominating Convention by the delegates of New York, Massachusetts, and six other States, receiving on the first ballot more votes than Mr. Lincoln. Promptly accepting the choice of the latter, he entered heartily into the campaign, making numerous speeches, and when the election was gained, was called to the foremost place in the new cabinet as Secretary of State. His unwearied diplomatic activity in his correspondence with foreign nations, bringing into effective use all the resources of his cultivated mind, his ready, fluent style, his mental ingenuity, the spring and elasticity with which he maintained the integrity of his country, are matters of the history of to-day. Nor less were his services at this time conspicuous in his judicious

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treatment of the difficult public question known as the "Trent Difficulty." Anticipating by his prompt action the unseemly exasperating demand of Great Britain for the surrender of the captured Mason and Slidell, the envoys of the Southern Confederacy, by his preliminary dispatch he, in the words of Mr. Adams, "saved the dignity of the country," and, in its not improbable consequences, "the unity of the nation." "It was," continues Mr. Adams, "like the fable of the Roman Curtius, who leaped into the abyss which could have been closed in no other way."

After holding the Secretaryship of State through the first term of President Lincoln, he was reappointed to the office in his second administration. In the early days of this period at Washington, he was seriously injured by being thrown from his carriage while riding out; and, while suffering from this accident, he was assailed and desperately wounded in his bedchamber, on the night of the President's assassination, by one of the conspirators bent upon taking his life. His illness was greatly prolonged by this attack, the scars of which deeply marked his person. On his recovery, he resumed his seat as Secretary of State, under the new administration of President Johnson, and continued with it in that capacity to its close. The leading features of his foreign diplomacy, at this period, were the maintenance of the claims upon England for the injuries suffered by American commerce during the war; opposition to the French intervention in Mexico; the negotiation of naturalization treaties with several of the European powers, and the purchase of Alaska from Russia. He then returned in broken health to his old home at Auburn, but did not long remain there. Warned of the insidious approaches of paralysis, and conscious that his life could be preserved only by a career of personal activity, he entered upon an extended course of foreign travel, embracing a tour of the world. Traversing Mexico and the western region of California, he crossed the Pacific to Japan, visited China and India, and pursued the overland route by Egypt, through Central Europe to England, receiving at every stage of his journey the most distinguished attentions. Returning to his old residence, he became engaged in the preparation of the account of his travels, since given to the public by his daughter; and it was while this work, nearly completed, was going through the press that, on the 11th of October, 1872, after a short previous accession of illness, he expired at his home at Auburn. Every mark of public respect by the Nation, his State, and his numerous distinguished friends, was paid to his memory in the services and tributes attending his funeral. The Legislature of New York, in April of the following year, prolonged these ceremonial offerings by a special memorial service at Albany, when, by invitation, an elaborate address was delivered by the Hon. Charles Francis Adams — a generous and eloquent tribute to the career of the departed Statesman.

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ALEXANDER II., OF RUSSIA.

ALEXANDER II., Emperor of Russia, styled also Czar and Autocrat of All the Russias, is the son of the late Emperor Nicholas I. and Frederica Louisa, eldest daughter of Frederick William III., King of Prussia. He was born on the 29th of April, 1818, in the reign of his uncle, Alexander I. His father, Nicholas, came to the throne on the death of that sovereign, in 1829; the elder brother, Constantine, by a family arrangement, being set aside in the succession. This led to a military insurrection at the very outset of the new reign, which was suppressed with great vigor by the Emperor Nicholas, and doubtless influenced the stern policy which subsequently characterized his administration. His son, Alexander, the next heir to the empire, was educated from his childhood with a view to that high destiny. He is said to have been disposed rather to civil than military life; at least to have felt the irksomeness of the warlike training and discipline to which he was subjected. But, with a Russian sovereign, a military education is a necessity, and no one could set a higher value upon the army as an instrument of power than the Czar Nicholas. He personally superintended his son's military studies; and when the latter, at the age of sixteen, was declared of age, he was promoted to high office in the army, and made aide-de-camp to the Emperor. The state of his health causing some uneasiness, he was sent to visit the German courts; and, in 1841, was married to the Princess Wilhelmine Auguste Sophie Maria, daughter of Ludwig II., Grand Duke of Hesse; who, before her marriage, adopted the Greek faith and received the name of Maria Alexandrowna. The Prince was now sent as Governor to Finland, where he carried out, as far as practicable, his father's directions for the "Russification" of the province. In 1850, he made a tour of inspection through Mid-Russia, the Crimea, Circassia, and other Russian provinces, and on his return was decorated with the order of St. George.

In 1853 commenced the series of measures of interference on the part of the Czar Nicholas with the interior administration of Turkey, which led immediately to the declaration, by the Sultan, of war with Russia. France and England were soon involved in

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Painted by — Alonzo Chappel

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Emperor Alexander 2nd of Russia

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the struggle; the war was transferred to the Crimea; and, in the midst of its gigantic efforts, when the military resources of Russia were tried to the uttermost, the Czar Nicholas was suddenly taken ill and died on the 2d of March, 1855, in his palace at St. Petersburg. One of his last acts was to summon his children to his bedside, and enjoin upon them allegiance and fidelity to their brother Alexander on his accession to the sovereignty. There had been some ill feeling between the latter and his younger brother Constantine, which had been exhibited in mutual acts of hostility; but any differences, if they still existed, were now merged in considerations for the paramount welfare of the nation. Immediately on the death of his father, Alexander was, without opposition, proclaimed Emperor. The following proclamation was issued by him the same day: "In His impenetrable ways it has pleased God to strike us all with a blow as terrible as it was unexpected. Following a brief and serious illness, which at the close was developed with an unheard of rapidity, our much-loved father, the Emperor Nicholas Paviovitch, has departed life this day, the 18th of February (March 2). No language can express our grief—which will also be the grief of our faithful subjects. Submitting with resignation to the impenetrable designs of Divine Providence, we seek consolation but in Him, and wait from Him alone the necessary aid to enable us to sustain the burdens which it has pleased Him to impose upon us. Even as the much-loved father, whom we mourn, consecrated all his efforts, every moment of his life, to the labors and to the cares called for by the well-being of his subjects—we, at this hour, so painful, but also so grave and so solemn, in ascending our hereditary throne of the Empire of Russia, as well as of the Kingdom of Poland, and of the Grand Duchy of Finland, which are inseparable from it, take, in the face of the invisible and ever-present God, the sacred pledge never to have any other end but the prosperity of our country. May Providence, who has called us to this high mission, so aid us that, guided and protected by Him, we may be able to strengthen Russia in the highest degree of power and glory; that by us may be accomplished the views and the desires of our illustrious predecessors, Peter, Catharine, Alexander, the much-loved, and our august father of imperishable memory. By their well-proved zeal, by their prayers ardently united with ours before the altars of the Most High, our dear subjects will come to our aid. We invite them to do so, commanding them to take at the same time the oath of fidelity both to us and to our heir, his Imperial Highness Cesaréwitch Grand Duke Nicholas Alexandrovitch."

In agreement with these declarations, the war in which the nation was involved was prosecuted by the new sovereign with vigor; but, under the combined efforts of the allied powers, it was already hastening to its close, and was virtually terminated by the fall of Sebastopol in September of the same year. The treaty of peace was signed at Paris in March, 1856.

The Emperor, thus freed from an

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oppressive and exhaustive conflict, precipitated upon the nation by the iron will of his predecessor, now turned his attention to the development of the internal resources of the country by an assiduous cultivation of the arts of peace. Reforms of all kinds were set on foot, in the reduction and reorganization of the army, in the system of administration, the amelioration of the criminal laws and improvement of the administration, the promotion of education, the construction of roads and railways, and generally in measures affecting the social and material progress and elevation of the people. Representative institutions for local government of a limited character in departmental and general councils were granted. The censorship of the press was greatly relieved. Scientific studies and pursuits were generously encouraged. Above all, the emancipation of the Serfs was resolved upon—a measure which, more than any other, will signalize the Emperor's reign in history. The history of this great act of national reform is thus given in the "English Cyclopædia," to which we are indebted for this general summary of the events of Alexander's career.

"A Ukase of March the 3d, 1861, declared the serfs of both classes—those who as peasants held a certain portion of land, for which they gave in return a fixed amount of labor; and those who, having no land, were virtually the property of the nobles and landowners—to be personally and civilly free. Both classes of serfs, in number about twenty-three millions, were entirely subject to their lords, without whose permission they could not quit their homes or enter upon any new occupation, and by whom they could be punished, and even flogged, if disobedient. By the new decree they were removed from the jurisdiction of the proprietor, and admitted to the same rights, and made amenable to the same laws as their fellow-subjects. Regulations were laid down for the grants of land to the emancipated serfs, and their payment by labor, or under certain conditions by means of a government loan, and a period of transition was allowed to proprietors and serfs till 1870, when there would be entire freedom. The adoption and resolute accomplishment of so complete a scheme, in the face of all opposition and difficulty, afford the strongest proof of the Emperor's force of will and persistency of purpose. From the first it was opposed by the whole body of the nobles, by the old Russian party, and family and government traditions. But the Emperor refused to postpone, and was hardly brought to modify, his original decree. The nobles believed that it was put forth with the view to subvert their power, and for a time it seemed as though there would be a grave conflict. At an assembly of nobles, held in January, 1862, it was formally moved to take into consideration a resolution calling upon the Emperor to abdicate in favor of his eldest son, and the motion was only lost by a majority of 18, the votes being 165 for and 183 against it. This was a symptom of disaffection not to be overlooked. Stringent measures were adopted for the security of the Emperor's person and the safety of the seat of gov-

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ernment, and military precautions were taken against any outbreak. But it was understood that the vote was intended rather as an intimation of dissatisfaction with the particular measure than of any purpose of revolt; and it was resolved to make some concessions. These somewhat hampered the working of the emancipation scheme, but did not materially alter it. Time was, however, gained, and the Emperor was enabled to use the emancipated peasantry as a check upon any hostile movement of the proprietors. The nobles have, on the whole, been compelled to acquiescence; any subsequent attempt at hostile action has met with a stern rebuke, and their power of deliberation and control, by means of their territorial assemblies, seriously abridged. Thus the nobles of Moscow, having met in full assembly, June, 1865, to claim guarantees which were refused, passed a resolution asserting the necessity for public representation, the provincial assembly of the nobles having been rendered nugatory by the institution of the provincial parliaments, whilst the political rights formerly possessed by the assemblies of nobles were only partially transferred to the popular parliaments. To this the Emperor replied by a letter addressed to the Minister of the Interior, in which, after referring to the reforms already accomplished by him, he declares that 'the right of initiative in the various parts of the work of gradually perfecting those reforms belongs alone to me, and is indissolubly allied to the autocratic power confided to me by God. No class has legally a right to speak in the name of any other class, nor is any individual entitled to intercede with me in favor of the general interests, or with regard to what they consider necessities of State.' Further, he wished them to understand for the future, that any such deviations from the regulated order would only serve to retard the development of his plans.

"Shortly after he ascended the throne, the Emperor visited Warsaw. The nobles and merchants presented an address, and implored his favor. The reply contained the usual phrases of good will and benevolent intentions, but with them was the significant warning 'the order established here by my father must be maintained; no dreams!' Year after year the Poles found the iron hand pressing harder upon them. They were to be awakened from their fond dream of a national existence in any sense. The people were disarmed; the few constitutional safeguards were declared inapplicable to them. Any person of position who gave public expression to his dissatisfaction, and many who were only supposed to be dissatisfied, were arrested, and mostly exiled to Siberia. At length a harsh edict of conscription, which would have forced into the Russian army pretty nearly the whole manhood of Warsaw, brought matters to a crisis. Insurrection spread rapidly, and though for the most part with only improvised arms, the Poles maintained, through 1863, a long and desperate struggle. They were of course beaten The British, French, and Austrian governments had proposed mediation, and even ventured to remonstrate

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against the Russian measures, but their interference was haughtily repulsed—'The insurgents must throw down their arms, and submit themselves to the clemency of the Emperor.' His decrees for the Russification of Poland, and its absolute absorption into the empire, were resolutely enforced. Tartar insurrections and Circassian revolts have been treated in the same way.

"On the 16th of April, 1866, as the Emperor was about to enter his carriage at the gate of the Summer Garden, St. Petersburg, he was fired at by a man named Karakosoff, but the assassin's arm was seized by a bystander, who, diverting the pistol upwards, caused it to discharge harmlessly in the air. Karakosoff was a Russian of noble family; Konimisaroff, who saved the Emperor's life, was a journeyman hatter, but was ennobled on the spot for his conduct. Great numbers of suspected persons, students, Poles, and the like, were arrested, but there was only questionable evidence of the crime being part of a conspiracy. A year later a similar attempt was made in Paris, where the Emperor was on a visit to the Emperor of the French. As the two Emperors were in a carriage in the Bois de Boulogne, a Pole named Berezowski took aim at the Czar and fired; but Napoleon's equerry, M. Rainbeaux, observing his movement, rode forward, and his horse received the shot—the life of Alexander II, being thus a second time saved from the assassin. Berezowski was condemned to imprisonment with hard labor for life: Alexander had requested that his life might be spared.

"Looking at the state of Russia during the seventeen years of the reign of Alexander II., from 1855 to 1872, we see that it has been eminently a period of transition; and that to the personal character of the sovereign, its special phase may be in an unusual degree assigned. His main purpose has been the unification, as it is called, of the empire, and in this he has been in a great measure successful. With ceaseless progression, Poland, Courland, Livonia, and Esthonia have been "Russified"—the national laws, administration of justice, education, language, having had to make way for those of Russia. He has also succeeded to a certain degree in improving the trade and developing the resources of the country. Like his predecessors, he has never lost sight of the extension of his territories. Convinced that the time was inopportune for actual aggression on Turkey, he has yet constantly sought to weaken her by encouraging disaffection in the Christian provinces, and making use of the ambitious tendencies of the Greeks. But, compelled to abstain from direct aggression in this quarter, he has found employment for his army by unceasing encroachment in Asia, until he has brought the Russian power, if not actual Russian territory, into immediate contact with Bokhara, Afghanistan, China, and Japan, and as some fancy, into inconvenient proximity with British India. Whether the ultimate purpose or tendency of this vast extension shall prove hostile or pacific, whether it shall lead to the subjugative of ancient Asiatic kingdoms, and a struggle for ascendancy with Euro-

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pean powers, or more happily to the opening of new and profitable channels of trade and friendly intercourse, only time can determine; but the fact cannot be without immense influence on the future of Russia. Second, it may be; but only second to that resulting from what will undoubtedly remain the grand achievement of the reign of Alexander II., the emancipation of the serfs."

In its relations to the United States the policy of the Emperor Alexander has always been of a friendly character. This was particularly shown during the war in the preservation of the Union, in the diplomatic expressions of good will which passed between the two countries. Removed from all occasions of interference with each other, though with different phases of government and different tasks to be performed, there would appear to be grounds of sympathy between the two nations, arising doubtless from the vast extent of territory which each occupies, and the consequent probabilities of aggrandisement in the future in the two hemispheres. Conscious of this harmonious separation of the destinies of the nations, Russia, in 1867, ceded to the United States by sale, her entire possessions in North America bordering on the Pacific.

In 1871, while the war between Germany and France was in progress, the Emperor Alexander demanded and obtained a modification of the Paris treaty of 1866, in respect to the limitations of his rights on the Black Sea.

By his wife, the Empress Maria Alexandrowna, the Emperor has had six sons and a daughter. The eldest son, Nicholas, born in 1843, died at Nice, in 1865. The heir to the throne, the Grand Duke Alexander, was born in 1845, and married in 1866 the Princess Dagmar, of Denmark. The other children, born between 1847 and 1860, are in the order of their birth, Vladimir, Alexis, Maria, Sergius, and Paul.

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JENNY LIND GOLDSCHMIDT.

THIS exquisite songstress, whose career among the members of her profession is in many respects unique, was born at Stockholm, the capital of Sweden, in October, 1821. Her parents belonged to the poor, industrial class of the country. In their religion, they were Protestants, members of the Lutheran church. The father, it is said, was a teacher of languages; the mother kept a school for children. When we first hear of their daughter, who was destined to achieve such remarkable distinction in the world, it is in the description of Frederica Bremer, as "a poor and plain little girl, lonely and neglected, in a little room of the city, who would have been very unhappy, deprived of the kindness and care so necessary to a child, if it had not been for a peculiar gift. The little girl had a fine voice, and in her loneliness, in trouble or in sorrow, she consoled herself by singing. In fact, she sung to all she did; at her work, at her play, running or resting, she always sang." One day, while singing, the child attracted the attention of Madame Lundberg, a celebrated actress, of Stockholm, who was so much impressed by her vocal powers, she brought her to the notice of Croelius, a well-known music master of the city. He, too, was astonished at her musical ear and voice, and declared her well worthy of being educated for the stage. The child, nothing loth,—she was now about nine years of age—was taken by him to Count Pücke, the director of the Royal Opera at Stockholm, to be put in the way of the necessary instruction provided by that institution for its disciples. The Count, who is said to have possessed a kind and generous heart under a rough exterior, on first seeing her, rudely questioned her capabilities. Looking disdainfully at her, he said to her protector: "You are asking a foolish thing. What shall we do with such an ugly creature? See what feet she has! And then, her face! She will never be presentable. We cannot take her." Then said the music master, "If you will not take her, poor as I am, I will take her myself and have her educated for the stage. Such another ear as she has for music is not to be found in the world!" The Count relented, and, convinced of her powers, had her admitted at once to the Musical Academy.

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Jenny Lind

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So poor was her family at this time, that it was, as Miss Bremer tells us, with some difficulty a simple gown of black bombazine was procured for her.

Under the tuition of Berg, the director of the singing school of the opera, she at once made rapid progress. When she had been about two years at the institution, she attracted attention by her spirited performance of the part of a beggar-girl, in a little comedy acted by the pupils, and for a year or two afterwards, was a favorite in the representation of children's characters. "Vaudevilles were written expressly for her: the truth of her conception, the originality of her style, gained for her the reputation of being a prodigy, while the modesty and amiability of her demeanor secured for her love and regard." It was at this period that she was threatened with the loss of her voice. The upper notes, and the silvery tone, her peculiar attributes, vanished or were impaired, and with them were departing the expectations which had been formed for her success in the grand opera. While under this cloud, still pursuing her instrumental studies, she was one evening entrusted, at a concert, with a subordinate part in an act of Meyerbeer's "Robert the Devil." Venturing timidly on the stage, she sang the single air allotted to her to the admiration of the company. Her voice had recovered its former powers; her success was appreciated by the manager, and she was immediately afterwards assigned a character which she had long studied and coveted, in Weber's "Der Frieschütz." "At the rehearsal preceding the performance," writes Miss Bremer, "she sang in a manner which made the members of the orchestra at once lay down their instruments to clap their hands in rapturous applause. It was our poor, plain little girl here again, who now had grown up, and was to appear before the public in the rôle of Agatha. I saw her at the evening representation. She was then in the prime of youth, fresh, bright, and serene as a morning in May—perfect in form—her hands and her arms peculiarly graceful—and lovely in her whole appearance, through the expression of her countenance, and the noble simplicity and calmness of her manners. In fact, she was charming. We saw not an actress, but a young girl full of natural geniality and grace. She seemed to move, speak, and sing without effort or art. All was nature and harmony. Her song was distinguished especially by its purity, and the power of soul which seemed to swell in her tones. Her 'mezzo voce' was delightful. In the night scene, where Agatha, seeing her lover come, breathes out her joy in rapturous song, our young singer, on turning from the window, at the back of the theatre, to the spectators again, was pale for joy. And in that pale joyousness, she sang with a burst of outflowing love and life that called forth not the mirth, but the tears of the auditors."

This performance established the success of Jenny Lind. Her name became known throughout Sweden, and for several seasons she was heard with enthusiasm in leading parts suited to her capacity, at the Royal Opera, at Stockholm. Her voice, however, had

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not yet been trained to the full perfection which it afterwards attained. To accomplish herself still further in its exercise, she resolved upon a visit to Paris, to become the pupil of Garcia, renowned for his training of eminent singers. The necessary funds to carry this resolution into effect, were provided by a series of concerts, which she gave in the principal towns of Sweden and Norway. On her arrival in Paris, she was advised by Garcia to give her voice absolute rest for three months, so much impaired was it by use. She passed the time, not without suffering and mortification, in retirement, and at the end of the period, the professional master to whose direction she had submitted, pronounced her powers greatly improved. She then perfected that warble, in which, as Miss Bremer remarks, "she is said to have been equalled by no singer, and which could be compared only to that of the soaring and singing lark, if the lark had a soul." At Paris, she made the acquaintance of the composer Meyerbeer, who greatly admired the purity of her tones, and arranged for her a rehearsal in the salon of the Grand Opera, in which she appeared in the best scenes of "Robert the Devil," "Norma," and "Der Freischütz."

In the spring of 1843, Jenny Lind, having returned to her native city, reappeared at the opera, in "Robert the Devil," and won the hearts of all by her exquisite singing and dramatic representation. A professional visit to Copenhagen, in which she made her first appearance in the same character of Alice, ensued, when she was received by the Danes with eager enthusiasm. "It was like a new revelation in the realms of art," wrote the author Andersen, "the youthful, fresh voice forced itself into every heart: here reigned truth and nature; and everything was full of meaning and intelligence. At one concert, she sang her Swedish songs. There was something so peculiar in this, so bewitching, the popular melodies uttered by a being so purely feminine, and bearing the universal stamp of genius, exercised omnipotent sway—the whole of Copenhagen was in rapture. On the stage, she was the great artist who rose above all those around her; at home, in her own chamber, a sensitive young girl, with all the humility and piety of a child." After her return from this visit to Copenhagen, she was invited by Meyerbeer to an engagement at the Theatre Royal, at Berlin, where she soon succeeded in winning her way to the admiration of her critical audiences. An engagement followed in Vinena; she reappeared several seasons in Berlin, and was welcomed wherever she appeared throughout Germany.

In 1847, she visited England, for the first time making her appearance in London, in May, in her established part of Alice in "Robert the Devil." The Queen and Prince Albert were present in a distinguished audience, which hailed her appearance and execution with unbounded enthusiasm. On every occasion she was received with tributes of admiration awarded, not merely to her professional merits, but to her rare personal qualities, the gentleness, refinement and generosity of her nature, the fame of which had preceded her, and the expression of

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which was recognized in her acting. She subsequently appeared in Donnizetti's "Daughter of the Regiment," in "Norma," in Amina, in "La Sonnambula," and in other parts; and when her London engagement was completed, followed up her successes in a tour through the provinces and in visits to Edinburgh and Dublin. The enthusiasm with which she was received in this and other succeeding seasons in England became a mania. Through all classes, at the grand opera and the concert room, her popularity was unbounded. In the midst of this musical excitement, at the close of 1849, Mademoiselle Lind received overtures from the enterprising P. T. Barnum, offering to guarantee her large receipts if she would visit the United States. The terms proposed and accepted by her were one thousand dollars a night for one hundred and fifty concert performances. In no case was she to appear in opera. The distinguished composer and pianist, Julius Benedict, and the Italian vocalist Belletti, were engaged to accompany her. In making the announcement of this engagement in a letter to the American Newspapers, Mr. Barnum put prominently forward the sacrifices the fair artist was making in accepting his proposition, which involved her declining various highly advantageous European overtures, while he judiciously dwelt upon her admiration for America, and the generosity of her disposition in her numerous charities. "Miss Lind," he declared, "has numerous better offers than the one she has accepted from me, but she has a great anxiety to visit America; she speaks of this country and its institutions in the highest terms of rapture and praise, and as money is by no means the greatest inducement that can be laid before her, she has determined to visit us. In her engagement with me, (which engagement includes Havana as well as the United States,) she expressly reserves the right to give charitable concerts whenever she thinks proper. Since her *debût* in England, she has given to the poor, from her own private purse, more than the whole amount which I have engaged to give her; and the proceeds of concerts for charitable purposes in Great Britain, where she sung gratuitously, have realized more than ten times that amount. During the last eight months she has been singing entirely gratuitously, for charitable purposes, and she is now founding a benevolent institution in Stockholm, her native city, at a cost of $350,000. A visit from such a woman, who regards her high artistic powers as a gift from Heaven, for the amelioration of affliction and distress, and whose every thought and deed is philanthropy, I feel persuaded will prove a blessing to America, as it has to every country which she has visited; and I feel every confidence that my countrymen and women will join me heartily in saying, 'May God bless her!'"

When Jenny Lind therefore landed from the steamer *Atlantic*, one Sunday morning of September, 1850, it was to be received as a kind of angel visitant rather than as any ordinary professional performer. Her avoidance of the theatre doubtless assisted in setting her apart from the race of actresses,

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and opening to her in the concert-room a far wider range of sympathies than could possibly reach her on the stage. The press, too, both of England and America, seemed devoted to her reputation. She came heralded by the eulogies of the best newspaper critics of London, and had hardly put foot in the new world, when all those elements of popular enthusiasm, so easily excited at that period, were aroused in her favor. The journals of the day, led on by the adroit Barnum, artfully fed the flame; the Swedish nightingale was the subject of conversation everywhere; and when the tickets for her first performance were put up for sale, the demand was unprecedented. An enterprising hatter paid six hundred dollars for the first ticket. This opening concert was given at Castle Garden, at the Battery, where the great hall was filled by some seven thousand persons. A musical critic of the day, Mr. Dwight, thus describes the appearance upon the stage of Jenny Lind on that memorable evening, after Benedict had led the way with the overture to his opera "The Crusaders," himself conducting the orchestra, and Belletti had been heard in one of Rossini's bravura songs. "Now came a moment of breathless expectation. A moment more, and Jenny Lind, clad in a white dress, which well became the frank sincerity of her face, came forward through the orchestra. It is impossible to describe the spontaneous burst of welcome which greeted her. The vast assembly were as one man, and for some minutes nothing could be seen but the waving of hands and handkerchiefs, nothing heard but a storm of tumultuous cheers. The enthusiasm of the moment, for a time beyond all bounds, was at last subdued, after prolonging itself, by its own fruitless efforts to subdue itself; and the divine songstress, with that perfect bearing, that air of all dignity and sweetness, blending a child-like simplicity and half-trembling womanly modesty with the beautiful confidence of Genius and serene wisdom of Art, addressed herself to song, as the orchestral symphony prepared the way for the voice in *Casta Diva.* A better test-piece could not have been selected for her *debût.* If it were possible, we would describe the quality of that voice, so pure, so sweet, so fine, so whole and all-pervading in its lowest breathings and minutest *fioriture*, as well as in its strongest volume. We never heard tones which in their sweetness went so far. They brought the most distant and ill-seated auditor close to her.—They *were* tones every one of them, and the whole air had to take the law of their vibrations. The voice and the delivery had in them all the good qualities of all the good singers. Song in her has that integral beauty which at once proclaims it as a type for all, and is most naturally worshipped as such by the multitude. * * * Hers is a genuine soprano, reaching the extra high notes with that ease and certainty which make each highest one a triumph of expression purely, and not a physical marvel. The gradual growth and *sostenuto* of her times; the light and shade, the rhythmic undulation and balance of her passages; the bird-like ecstacy of

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her trill; the faultless precision and fluency of her chromatic scales; above all, the sure reservation of such volume of voice as to crown each protracted climax with glory, not needing a new effort to raise force for the final blow; and, indeed, all the points one looks for in a mistress of the vocal art were eminently hers in *Casta Diva.* But the charm lay not in any *point*, but rather in the inspired vitality, the hearty, genuine outpouring of the whole,—the real and yet truly ideal humanity of all her singing. That is what has won the world to Jenny Lind; it is that her whole soul and being goes out in her song, and that her voice becomes the impersonation of that song's soul, if it have any; that is, if it be a song. There is plainly no vanity in her, no mere aim at effect; it is all frank and real, and harmoniously earnest."

Other musical triumphs followed; and, at the close, Mr. Barnum being called for, brought the enthusiasm of the evening to its utmost height by the announcement that Mademoiselle Lind had devoted her share of the proceeds of the concert, amounting to ten thousand dollars, to a number of the most worthy charities of the city. a list of which he proceeded to read, with the sums assigned to each. At the head stood the Fire Department Fund to which three thousand dollars were appropriated, an excellent stroke of policy; for, under the old voluntary system, this body then represented in a certain popular way the great masses of the community.

The moral as well as the professional element, it was evident, was to play its part in the great Jenny Lind "ovations." "In this tumultuous reception which we are giving to the pale Swede," wrote the accomplished author, Mr. Willis, at the time, "there is, of course, some professional management and some electrified and uncomprehending popular ignorance, (as in what popular enthusiasm is there not?) but it is, in much the greater portion of its impulse, signally creditable to our country. *The lever which works it is an admiration for her goodness.* Without her purity, her angelic simplicity, her munificence, and her watchful and earnest-hearted pity for the poor and lowly—or without a wide and deep appreciation of these virtues by the public—she would have found excitement only at the footlights of the stage. Her voice and her skill as an artist might have made her the rage with 'the fashion.' But while the Astor Place Opera-house will hold all who constitute 'the fashion,' it would take the Park and all the Squares in the city to hold those who constitute the rage for Jenny Lind. No! let the city be as wicked as the reports of crime make it to be—let the vicious be as thick, and the taste for the meretricious and artificial be as apparently uppermost—the lovers of goodness are the many, the supporters and seekers of what is pure and disinterested are the substantial bulk of the people. Jenny Lind is, at this moment, in the hearts of the majority of the population of New York, and she is there for nothing but what pleases the angels of Heaven as well."

This was the spirit of the enthusias-

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tic reception of Jenny Lind in America. The popular excitement, originating in New York, was continued in Boston, Philadelphia, and other cities of the Union, the management of the concerts remaining in the hands of Mr. Barnum till nearly one hundred of the number originally proposed were given, when Mdlle. Lind availed herself of a clause in the agreement by which she was at liberty to dissolve the engagement on forfeiture of a considerable sum. This was in the summer of 1851. Some other concerts were then given, after which, before her departure from the country, Mdlle. Lind was married at New York, to Mr. Otto Goldschmidt, a young pianist, son of a wealthy merchant of Hamburg. After her marriage, Madame Goldschmidt returned to Europe, passing through England to Germany; and, declining all propositions to sing in public, settled for a time at Dresden, largely employing herself in works of charity. She afterwards made her residence in England. She has several times since reappeared in concert rooms, maintaining her old reputation, chiefly in her effective rendering of sacred music.

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John Bright.

From the original painting by Chappel, in the possession of the publishers.

Johnson Wilson & Co. Publishers, New York.

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JOHN BRIGHT.

THIS liberal English politician and statesman, who, by the force of his intellect and character, has, through much opposition in his early public career, won his way to the highest rank among the parliamentary orators of his day, was born in 1811, of Quaker parentage, the son of Jacob Bright, of Greenbank, near Rochdale, in Lancashire. Educated in his native town, and at a boarding school in Yorkshire —in one of his speeches he tells us that his school education closed at fifteen—he entered at an early age into his father's business as a cotton spinner and manufacturer, and, being well established in this relation, first appeared prominently in public life as the associate of Richard Cobden, his elder by seven years, in the great popular agitation for the repeal of the Corn Laws. He joined the association called the "Anti-Corn-Law League," which was formed in 1838, and, during the eight years which this struggle for reform lasted, ending in the triumph of the cause, was unwearied in its advocacy. Bringing to the discussion a remarkably clear, direct intellect, with a robust enthusiasm, the reflection of a strong physical constitution, his antagonist found him a most formidable opponent in his appeals to the people, or rather for them—while, armed with details, and strongly sympathizing with the poverty brought upon large classes, he based his arguments on the essential principles of justice and moral necessity. Cobden, who had already considerable experience in public affairs, and had been a candidate for parliament, naturally took the lead in this important question; but he soon discerned in young Bright a most important ally, and, from 1841, they were equally conspicuous in their argumentative and oratorical efforts in furtherance of "the League." In the great manufacturing districts, at Manchester, in Lancashire; in popular demonstrations, in great meetings at Glasgow, Edinburgh, London, and elsewhere, the voice of Bright was heard, with that of his eminent associate, and always with effect. His bold, hearty self-reliance, exerted in a cause of their own, went directly to the hearts of the people. Both the friends entered parliament in the midst of this discussion of the Corn Laws; Cobden in 1841, and Bright in 1843 as member for Dur-

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ham. The first speech of the latter in the House of Commons, without any effort at oratory, exhibited the plain, resolute common sense which has always distinguished his speeches, not without marks of that aggressiveness which made him recognized as a formidable opponent, and secured him at once opposition and respect.

The Corn Law Agitation ended in 1846, with the passage of the act for repealing the duties on foreign corn; but the vocation of Bright, who had hitherto labored almost exclusively in that cause, was not at an end. There were other questions of reform appealing to his sympathies, generally of a humanitarian character, in which were to be ranked free trade in its various forms, and the foreign policy of the country in the preservation of peace. Continuing to sit as a member of the House of Commons for Durham until 1847, he was then returned for Manchester, and was again elected by this constituency in 1852. It was about this latter date that his course again excited much attention by his persistent advocacy of what was called the Peace Question, in opposition to the threatened war with Russia. On this subject he may have been somewhat misapprehended; he was certainly for a long time pertinaciously assailed. The "Peace Society," which had been founded in England many years before, under the impulse of certain annual conferences held at different cities in Europe, in which various philanthropists, of more or less note, participated, was now springing up into greater importance, when, in 1851, Bright was present at its Conference in London. Among his associates at this meeting were Sir David Brewster, who presided, the French Coquerel, St. Hilaire, Emile de Girardin, and, of his own countrymen, Cobden and Joseph Sturge. He was also at the Conference in Edinburgh, in 1853, which attracted considerable attention in consequence of the excited state of the public mind in reference to the Eastern or Russian question, the Emperor Nicholas having even then entered on his aggressive course toward Turkey.

This was an earnest protest; but it fell powerless before the declared policy of the Government, and all that Bright could accomplish by his stirring eloquence in parliament was to seek to mitigate the evil of the hostilities which ensued, and point the moral of a great lesson of history for a wiser and better time. Some of the best of his many speeches were delivered in this interest, which, spite of the unpopularity which it brought upon him, he pursued with unflinching zeal. In this and the like utterances Mr. Bright favored, not as his enemies represented, the weakness, but sought to establish the moral and material prosperity of the nation, deprecating of all things those foreign "entangling alliances" by which the nation had brought upon herself such sacrifices of life and treasure. It was the cause of the people which he advocated. In one of his addresses on this subject, he said, with great force and eloquence: "I believe there is no permanent greatness to a nation, except it be based upon morality. I do not care for military greatness or mili-

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tary renown. I care for the condition of the people among whom I live. There is no man in England who is less likely to speak irreverently of the Crown and Monarchy of England than I am; but crowns, coronets, mitres, military display, the pomp of war, wide colonies, and a huge empire, are, in my view, all trifles light as air, and not worth considering, unless with them you can have a fair share of comfort, contentment, and happiness among the great body of the people. Palaces, baronial castles, great halls, stately mansions, do not make a nation. The nation in every country dwells in the cottage; and unless the light of your Constitution can shine there, unless the beauty of your legislation and the excellence of your statesmanship are impressed there on the feelings and conditions of the people, rely upon it, you have yet to learn the duties of government. I have not, as you have observed, pleaded that this country should remain without adequate and scientific means of defence. I acknowledge it to be the duty of your statesmen, acting upon the known opinions and principles of ninety-nine out of every hundred persons in the country, at all times, with all possible moderation, but with all possible efficiency, to take steps which shall preserve order within and on the confines of your kingdom. But I shall repudiate and denounce the expenditure of every shilling, the engagement of every man, the employment of every ship, which has no object but intermeddling in the affairs of other countries, and endeavoring to extend the boundaries of the Empire, which is already large enough to satisfy the greatest ambition, and, I fear, is much too large for the highest statesmanship to which any man has yet attained. The most ancient of profane historians has told us that the Scythians of his time were a very warlike people, and that they elevated an old cimeter upon a platform as a symbol of Mars; for to Mars alone, I believe, they built altars and offered sacrifices. To this cimeter they offered sacrifices of horses and cattle, the main wealth of the country, and more costly sacrifices than to all the rest of their gods. I often ask myself whether we are at all advanced in one respect beyond those Scythians. What are our contributions to charity, to education, to morality, to religion, to justice, and to civil government, when compared with the wealth we expend in sacrifices to the old cimeter? * * * May I ask you to believe, as I do most devoutly believe, that the moral law was not written for men alone in their individual character, but that it was written as well for nations, and for nations great as this of which we are citizens. If nations reject and deride that moral law, there is a penalty which will inevitably follow. It may not come at once, it may not come in our lifetime; but, rely upon it, the great Italian is not a poet only, but a prophet, when he says:

> 'The sword of heaven is not in haste to smite,
> Nor yet doth linger.'

We have experience, we have beacons, we have landmarks enough. We know what the past has cost us, we know how much and how far we have

wandered, but we are not left without a guide. It is true we have not, as the ancient people had, Urim and Thummim—those oraculous gems on Aaron's breast—from which to take counsel, but we have the unchangeable and eternal principles of the moral law to guide us, and only so far as we walk by that guidance can we be permanently a great nation, or our people a happy people."

These are principles which will stand the test of time. The immediate effect of their utterance by Mr. Bright, was, however, to call down upon him an unworthy unpopularity, which cost him his place in the House of Commons at the next general election in Manchester. He had previously been compelled by failing health to intermit his labors in Parliament, and recruit his strength by a journey in Italy. The same year, 1857, in which he was rejected by Manchester, saw him returned by Birmingham, where an opportune vacancy had occurred. The ideas of Free Trade which had been advocated all along by Cobden, were now in the ascendant, and the latter had the satisfaction in assisting in the liberal measures brought forward by Mr. Gladstone, as Chancellor of the Exchequer, and his friend Cobden's negotiation of the commercial treaty with France. But what most distinguished Mr. Bright in this new period of his Parliamentary career, was his sagacious insight into the American question which sprang up with the war of Secession in the United States, and the steady and brave consistency with which he endeavored to hold Parliament to a proper sense of responsibility in the observance of the obligations and the maintenance of right relations with the national government at Washington. Like Cobden, he saw from the beginning the true nature of the contest, that slavery was its source, and that it involved a great question of moral right and wrong ; and when he found such an issue, as in the case of the restrictive policy of the corn laws, his judgment never wavered, for it was guided alike by his intelligence and his instincts. When, at the close of the war, he reviewed its course, he thus traced its origin: "In spite of all that persecutions could do, opinion grew in the North in favor of freedom; but in the South, alas! in favor of that most devilish delusion that slavery was a divine institution. The moment that idea took possesion of the South, war was inevitable. Neither fact, nor argument, nor counsel, nor philosophy, nor religion, could by any possibility affect the discussion of the question, when once the Church leaders of the South had taught their people that slavery was a divine institution; for then they took their stand on other and different, and what they in their blindness thought higher grounds, and they said 'Evil! be thou my good;' and so they exchanged light for darkness, and freedom for bondage, and, if you like, heaven for hell. Of course, unless there was some stupendous miracle, greater than any that is on record, even in the inspired writings, it was impossible that war should not spring out of that state of things; and the political slaveholders, that 'dreadful brotherhood, in whom all turbulent

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passions were let loose,' the moment that they found that the presidential election of 1860 was adverse to the cause of slavery, took up arms to sustain their cherished and endangered system. Then came the outbreak which had been so often foretold, so often menaced; and the ground reeled under the nation during four years of agony; until, at last, after the smoke of the battle-field had cleared away, the horrid shape which had cast its shadow over a whole continent had vanished, and was gone for ever."

With this understanding of the essential grounds of the struggle, he saw its inevitable result; and when motives of policy seemed to blind his countrymen to the issue, and tempt them to recognition of the South, he manfully resisted what he considered the foul contagion. "Coming back to the question of this war," said he in one of its darker hours, "I admit--of course, everybody must admit--that we are not responsible for it, for its commence ment, or for the manner in which it is conducted; nor can we be responsible for its result. But there is one thing which we are responsible for, and that is for our sympathies, for the manner in which we regard it, and for the tone in which we discuss it. What shall we say, then, in regard to it? On which side shall we stand? I do not believe it is possible to be strictly, coldly neutral. The question at issue is too great, the contest is too grand in the eye of the world. It is impossible for any man, who can have an opinion on any question, not to have some kind of an opinion on the question of this war. I am not ashamed of my opinion, or of the sympathy which I feel, and have over and over again expressed, on the side of the free North. I cannot understand how any man witnessing what is enacting on the American continent, can indulge in small cavils against the free people of the North, and close his eye entirely to the enormity of the purposes of the South. I cannot understand how any Englishman, who in past years has been accustomed to say that 'there was one foul blot upon the fair fame of the American Republic,' can now express any sympathy for those who would perpetuate and extend that blot. And, more, if we profess to be, though it be with imperfect and faltering steps, the followers of Him who declared it to be His Divine mission 'to heal the broken-hearted, to preach deliverance to the captives and recovering of sight to the blind, to set at liberty them that are bruised,' must we not reject with indignation and scorn, the proffered alliance and friendship with a power based on human bondage, and which contemplates the overthrow and the extinction of the dearest rights of the most helpless of mankind! If we are the friends of freedom, personal and political—and we all profess to be so, and most of us, more or less, are striving after it more completely for our own country—how can we withhold our sympathy from a government and a people amongst whom white men have always been free, and who are now offering an equal freedom to the black? I advise you not to believe in the 'destruction' of the American nation. If facts should happen by any chance to

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force you to believe it, do not commit the crime of wishing it. I do not blame men who draw different conclusions from mine from the facts, and who believe that the restoration of the Union is impossible. As the facts lie before our senses, so must we form a judgment on them. But I blame those men that wish for such a catastrophe. For myself, I have never despaired, and I will not despair. In the language of one of our old poets, who wrote, I think, more than three hundred years ago, I will not despair,—

> 'For I have seen a ship in haven fall
> After the storm had broke both mast and shroud.'

From the very outburst of this great convulsion, I have had but one hope and one faith, and it is this—that the result of this stupendous strife may make freedom the heritage for ever of a whole continent, and that the grandeur and the prosperity of the American Union may never be impaired."

On another occasion, he remarked on the same, speaking on the same subject: "What I do blame, is this. I blame men who are eager to admit into the family of nations, a State which offers itself to us, based upon a principle, I will undertake to say, more odious and more blasphemous than was ever heretofore dreamed of in Christian or Pagan, in civilized or in savage times. The leaders of this revolt propose this monstrous thing—that over a territory forty times as large as England, the blight and curse of slavery shall be forever perpetuated. I cannot believe, for my part, that such a fate will befall that fair land, stricken though it now is, with the ravages of war. I cannot believe that civilization, in its journey with the sun, will sink into endless night, in order to gratify the ambition of the leaders of this revolt, who seek to

> 'Wade through slaughter to a throne
> And shut the gates of mercy on mankind.'

I have another and a far brighter vision before my gaze. It may be but a vision, but I will cherish it. I see one vast confederation stretching from the frozen North in unbroken line to the glowing South, and from the wild billows of the Atlantic westward, to the calmer waters of the Pacific main,—and I see one people, and one language, and one law, and one faith, and, over all that wide continent, the home of freedom, and a refuge for the oppressed of every race and of every clime."

America is not likely to forget these words and many others which this orator uttered in her behalf during her momentous struggle. In the councils of Parliament, he was emphatically a peace-maker, deprecating the rude action of the government toward America in resentment of the seizure of the Southern ambassadors on board the "Trent." He thought that his government might have shown a little more generous courtesy on that occasion. "It is not customary in ordinary life," he said from his seat in Parliament, "for a person to send a polite messenger with a polite message to some neighbor, or friend, or acquaintance, and (in allusion to the English warlike preparations) at the same time to send some men of portentous strength,

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handling a gigantic club, making every kind of ferocious gesticulation; and at the same time, to profess that all this is done in the most friendly and courteous manner." In regard to the fitting out of the 'Alabama,' which he denounced as a violation of the statutes of his country, leading to an infraction of international law, and, in fine, on all proper occasions, the voice of this champion of liberty was heard in vindication of his own cherished longings for peace and the rights of America, which he valued as part of the civilization of the world.

When the American contest had terminated, as Bright had predicted it would terminate, perhaps beyond his hopes, in the utter extinction of slavery, another question became prominent in the councils of England. This was the further progress of Parliamentary Reform in an important extension of the right of suffrage. Palmerston died in 1866, after which the question made rapid progress, and Bright was a foremost worker in the agitation, which speedily ended in the passage of the new Reform Bill, distinguishing himself by his skilful use of Parliamentary weapons, not less than by his faculty of influencing the people. His fully recognized ability now marked him out for a seat in the ministry; and when the new administration was formed, in 1868, with Gladstone at its head, he received and accepted a seat in the cabinet, with the office of President of the Board of Trade. A serious illness, in 1870, led to his resignation of office; but the electors of Birmingham would not consent to his relinquishing the seat they had given in the House of Commons. During his Parliamentary career, he remained a partner with his brothers in the manufacturing business, at Rochdale and Manchester.

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THOMAS JONATHAN JACKSON.

THE most marked individual among the Southern Generals, perhaps among the many officers engaged on either side during the late civil conflict, was, doubtless, General Thomas Jonathan Jackson, familiarly known by his designation, distinguishing him from numerous others in history of his name, Stonewall Jackson. He was born of a respectable family of English and more remote Scotch Irish ancestry, at Clarksburg, Western Virginia, the youngest of a family of four children, January 21st, 1824. His great grandfather, who emigrated from London in 1748, and his grandfather, both bore their part on the American side in the War of the Revolution; and the family, on the adoption of the Constitution, was represented in Congress by two of its members. His father, Jonathan Jackson, who had practised law with success, was overtaken by misfortune in his latter years, and at his death, in 1827, left his family in want. His widow, a lady of cultivation and of unaffected piety, married again in 1830 and died the following year. Her orphan child, the subject of this notice, was thus left to the care of his father's relatives for maintenance and support. The boy thus early in life displayed some strength of will, for he ran away from the first of these protectors whom he disliked, and was received and entertained by an uncle, Cummins Jackson, on a farm at Weston, where he remained during his boyhood, assisting in the rural work and picking up the rudiments of education at a country school.

He was at this youthful period a lad of spirit, and had the hardihood, at the age of nine, in company with an elder brother, to undertake an erratic fortune-seeking journey on the Ohio, from which, after encountering various hardships of toil as a wood-cutter on an island of the Mississippi, and enfeebled by the ague of the spot, he was enabled to return to Virginia by the charity of a steamboat captain. At home he was known to the country round as a successful rider of his uncle's horses in the race-course, for which that relative had a true Virginian's affection. It is characteristic at once of young Jackson's incipient manliness and of the primitive habits of the region in which he dwelt, that at about the age of sixteen he was elected Constable by the Justices of the County Court of

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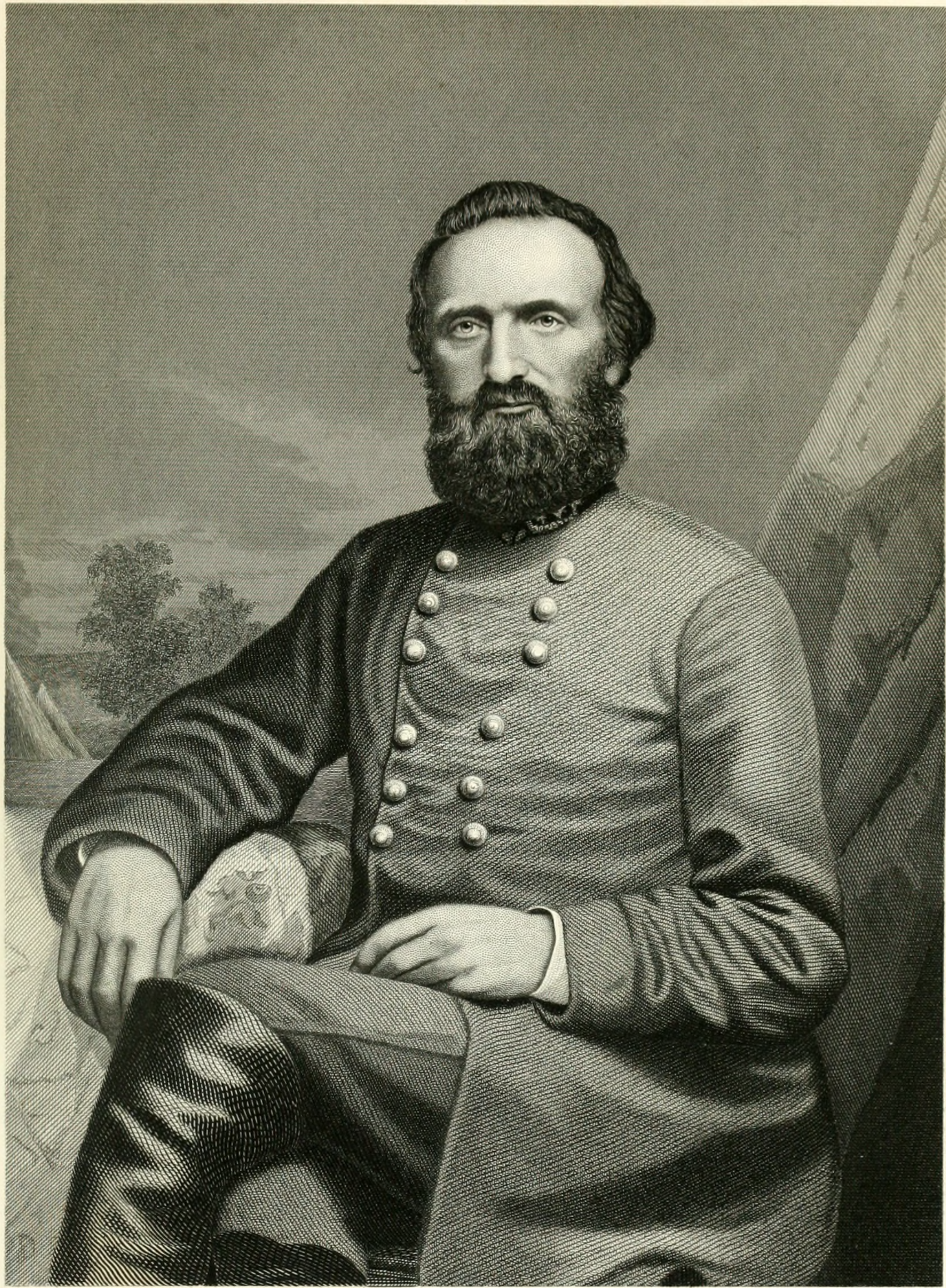

T. J. Jackson

Likeness from an authentic photograph from life.

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Sessions in which he resided. The duties of this office in traversing a considerable extent of country, serving process, collecting debts and making arrests, were calculated to develop a native hardihood of disposition; and the young incumbent appears to have secured the esteem and confidence of the members of the court and others interested in his proceedings. The position, however, was not sufficiently satisfactory or important to stand in his way when, a vacancy having occurred in the representation of the Congressional district at West Point, it was suggested that young Jackson should apply for the position. His uncle favored the notion, and the youth further succeeded in impressing an influential friend on the spot, if not with his present qualifications, at least with his own conviction, of the possibility of success in the future; and with a letter from his benefactor, Colonel Bennett, to the member of Congress for the District, made his way to Washington, where he succeeded in obtaining the coveted appointment. His position at West Point was at first embarrassed in consequence of his imperfect preparation, but this was an impediment which, like many others of vigorous natural powers who have entered this institution uninformed, he rapidly overcame by diligence and application. His mind was rather a stubborn, reluctant soil to cultivate, but it held and retained strongly what was with much labor firmly planted in it.

This disposition, though slow at the outset and far from brilliant in its early exhibitions, is probably the most favorable in the end for the serene and abstruse studies imposed at the national military academy. Jackson is described at this time as an awkward youth, and in his ways averse from amusements, unsociable, self-absorbed, and consequently of no little simplicity as to common every-day affairs. He was even, it is said, something of a hypochondriac, suffering indeed from derangement of the stomach, and fancying, not without probability, an hereditary taint of consumption, which he guarded against by sitting, according to some remedial theory, " bolt upright at his meals." One of his notions at this or some subsequent time, " was to believe that everything he eat *went down and lodged in his left leg*." Again, he would never eat except by the watch, at the precise moment; and he would take out his watch, lay it on the table, and eat at that moment. If the meal was behindhand he would not eat at all. Illustrative of the difficulty he had in learning anything, General Seymour, his classmate at West Point, related an anecdote:—" Seymour was at that time learning to play on the flute, and Jackson took it into his head that he also would learn. He went to the work with his accustomed vigor and perseverance, but he could not succeed in learning to play even the simplest air. He blew six months on the first bar of 'Love Not,' and then gave it up in despair."*

With these mingled incentives and disabilities of an eccentric nature, working resolutely in its distorted

* W. Swinton. Reminiscences of Stonewall Jackson. "New York Times," May 22, 1863.

fashion, Jackson ploughed his way heavily through his studies, and at the end of his first year stood in general merit fifty-one in a class of seventy; another year brought him up to thirty; a third to twenty, and the end of the fourth to seventeen. With this standing, in the same class with Generals McClellan, Foster, Reno, Stoneman, A. P. Hill, and other officers of renown in the conflict in which he was destined to bear so prominent a part, Jackson graduated with the appointment of brevet second lieutenant of artillery, July 1, 1846. It was the period of the war with Mexico, when the newly-created young officers of the small overtaxed national army were in request, and heartily responded to the call for active service on a scale of adventure and importance unprecedented in the experience of the generation then on the stage. The war had many attractions; the whole country was kindled with the novelty and magnitude of the operations; one battle followed another, promotion was rapid, and honor was attained on every field.

Jackson was attached to the 1st Regiment of Artillery, and was first brought into active service in the spring of 1847, in the column of General Scott at the siege of Vera Cruz. When the army advanced after the battle of Cerro Gordo he was transferred, at his own request, to Captain Magruder's light field battery, a position which brought with it a certainty of adventurous duty. In the action which followed at Churubusco he proved his courage on the field, and gained the warm commendations of his superiors. "When my fire was opened," wrote Magruder in his report, "in a few moments Lieutenant Jackson, commanding the second section of the battery, who had opened fire upon the enemy's works from a position on the right, hearing me fire still further in front, advanced in handsome style, and being assigned by me to the post so gallantly filled by Lieutenant Johnstone [who had been killed in the first encounter], kept up the fire with great briskness and effect. His conduct was equally conspicuous during the whole day."

At the subsequent arduous assault at Chapultepec his bravery was still more conspicuous. In the dispositions of the day he occupied an advance post, where his section of the battery encountered fearful odds of the enemy, and was at one moment ordered to retire, but he insisted on holding his ground till he was reinforced, and drove the enemy from his position. When his men were sheltering themselves from the heavy fire pouring upon them, it is said that Jackson, to incite their courage, advanced to the open ground in front, swept by shot and shell, "Come on," says he, "this is nothing. You see they can't hurt me." * More than one of the reports of the day records his gallantry. Says General Worth, who bore a conspicuous part in the action, "although he lost most of his horses and many of his men, Lieutenant Jackson continued chivalrously at his post, combating with noble courage." The young lieutenant was heartily recommended for promotion, and immediately received the brevet rank of Major. He

* Cooke's Life of Stonewall Jackson, p. 17.

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now entered Mexico with the victorious army, passed several months there of quiet duty, employing his comparative leisure in the acquisition of the Spanish tongue, which he mastered with his usual dogged industry and resolution, studying the forms of the language in a grammar, the only one he could find, written in Latin, which he had never been taught. It was an important event in his life at this period, that he now began firmly to strengthen his religious opinions—oddly, for the zealous Presbyterian of after-life, making some of his first enquiries in theology of the Roman Catholic Archbishop of Mexico.*

In the summer of 1848, Major Jackson returned to the United States, and was stationed for two years at a quiet post of routine duty at Fort Hamilton, in the harbor of New York. During this time his religious convictions were confirmed, and he was baptized by and received the communion from the hands of the Rev. Mr. Parks, the Episcopal chaplain of the garrison. From Fort Hamilton, Jackson was transferred for a short time to Florida, whence, in the spring of 1851, he was called to occupy the position of Professor of Natural and Experimental Philosophy and Artillery Tactics in the Military Academy of Virginia. This was an important institution, well situated in a picturesque location at Lexington, in Rockbridge county, was already well established, and had attracted to it a large body of students. In the election for the Professorship the names of the subsequently distinguished Generals McClellan, Reno, Rosecrans, and G. W. Smith, were before the Board of Visitors for selection. Jackson gained the preference by the impression which his character had made and by his birth as a Virginian. He resigned his rank in the army, accepted the new position, immediately entered upon its duties, and continued to discharge them with faithfulness and regularity for the ensuing ten years, at the end of which time the Professor, under the new order of things at the South, resumed his fighting career in active and portentous service.

Of Jackson's career at the Military Academy his biographers have many incidents to relate. During this period he was twice married; in 1853, to the daughter of the Rev. Dr. Judkin, President of the neighboring Washington College at Lexington, a union which was terminated by the death of his wife in little more than a year; and in 1857, to a daughter of the Rev. Dr. Morrison, a Presbyterian clergyman of North Carolina. His character was now formed in a firm basis of religious faith and experience, his associations or convictions having led him to become a devout member of the Presbyterian Church, and thenceforth he was known as a zealous professor, identifying himself with prayer-meetings, attendance on service, and the usual sympathies and observances of the denomination. In this, as in other relations, whatever he entertained as a duty he acted upon and carried out with uncompromising resolution and firmness. Thus, being strongly convinced of a sacred Old Testament observance of the Sabbath, he held it a sin that the United States

* Dr. Dabney's Life of Jackson. London Edition, Vol. 1, p. 63–'4.

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mails should be transmitted on that day; and when it was urged that it was quite impracticable for an individual to arrest the proceeding, his answer, says his biographer, Dr. Dabney, was, "that unless some Christians should begin singly to practice their exact duty, and thus set the proper example, the reform would never be begun; that his responsibility was to see to it that he, at least, was not *particeps criminis;* and that whether others would co-operate, was their concern, not his. Hence, not only did he persistently refuse to visit the post-office on the Sabbath Day, to leave or receive a letter, but he would not post a letter on Saturday or Friday, which, in regular course of transmission, must be travelling on Sunday, except in cases of high necessity." We shall find him, in the midst of his subsequent Southern army occupations, seeking, in a pointed manner, to enforce this opinion.

It was a maxim of Jackson, adopted early in life, and left recorded in a private note-book which he had written at West Point, that, "You may be whatever you resolve to be." It was an old apophthegm which the student might have learnt from his Virgil, where the poet points the moral of the struggle for mastery in the exciting contest of the rowers—*possunt quia posse videntur*—

"For they can conquer who believe they can."

But the young soldier learnt it not from books, but from the rugged experience of his own nature, in his hard attained success in overcoming the difficulties, inward and outward, by which he was invested. We value proportionately what we accomplish with effort; and, once acquired, the lesson never failed the aspirant. What is easy to a man he is apt to overlook, and sometimes despise. Dry reluctant minds, on the other hand, to whom struggle is a necessity, take their faculties for the race, and, rigidly adhering to their object, outstrip the better endowed but negligent. Jackson belonged to the class vowed to determination. If he once thought he ought to do a thing, he would not spare himself in accomplishing it. Thus, having made up his mind that it was a desirable acquisition to be able to speak fluently in public, probably in consequence of his consciousness of his utter inability to do so, he joined a debating society at Lexington; and though he begun with failure after failure, and was compelled time and again to sit down, after a few awkward ineffectual utterances, he yet rose again and persevered till, with confidence and increasing skill, he finally attained success. Equally firm was his resolution—in which thousands of invalids with the strongest possible motives fail—for the cure of the malady, the painful disorder of the stomach, which long clung to him, and which he overcame by a rigid system of temperance worthy of Cornaro. He not only refused to partake of stimulating liquors and tobacco, but avoided the use of tea and coffee. Self-denial, the first element of the soldier, was habitual to him.

In careless times of peace the constraint of such a man does not always prove acceptable, and we are not surprised to learn that, even in a Military

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Academy, where a certain degree of severity may be supposed to be the order of the day, Jackson was rather unpopular with the students. It would appear, from the narratives of friends who have described his course at Lexington, that he was somewhat of a pedantic turn in his instructions; that he lacked ease and adaptation to the wants of students in communicating knowledge; that his lectures in fact savored more of the inflexible camp drill than of a winning, accommodating philosophy. The pupils, doubtless, learnt to respect his nature when they became acquainted with it, but thoughtless youth saw more at first sight to deride than admire. "No idiosyncrasy of the Professor," we are told by his accomplished biographer, Mr. John Esten Cooke, who learnt to know him well in subsequent military experience in the Valley of Virginia, "was lost sight of. His stiff, angular figure; the awkward movement of his body; his absent and 'grim' demeanor; his exaggerated and apparently absurd devotion to military regularity; his wearisome exactions of a similar observance on their part—that general oddity, eccentricity, and singularity in moving, talking, thinking, and acting peculiar to himself—all these were described on a thousand occasions, and furnished unfailing food for laughter. They called him 'Old Tom Jackson,' and, pointing significantly to their foreheads, said he was 'not quite right *there*.' Some inclined to the belief that he was only a great eccentric; but others declared him 'crazy.' Those who had experienced the full weight of his Professional baton—who had been reprimanded before the class, or 'reported' to the superintendent for punishment or dismissal—called him 'Fool Tom Jackson.' These details are not very heroic, and detract considerably from that dignified outline which eulogistic writers upon Jackson have drawn. But they are true. Nothing is better established than the fact, that the man to whom General Lee wrote, 'Could I have directed events, I should have chosen for the good of the country to have been disabled in your stead;' and of whom the London 'Times' said, 'That mixture of daring and judgment, which is the mark of 'Heaven-born' Generals, distinguished him beyond any man of his time.' Nothing is more certain, we say, than that this man was sneered at as a fool, and on many occasions stigmatized as insane."

One anecdote of this portion of Jackson's career deserves to be recorded. It is related by his biographers, and is probable enough in its incidents, in the murderous intent of the student—for a student has been known to shoot a Professor, if we remember rightly, in the University of Virginia—and the indifferent, courageous bearing with which the meditated assault was met. One of the cadets had been tried under charges preferred by Jackson, and dismissed from the Academy. He vowed revenge, declared that he would take the life of the Professor, and, arming himself, awaited the coming of his victim at a point on the road by which he must pass on his way to the Institution. The Professor was warned, but refused to turn from his course, simply remarking, "Let the

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assassin murder me if he will," and keeping on, calmly and sternly, confronted the young man, who, rebuked by his steady gaze, quailed, and retired in silence from the spot. This was an exercise of true self-reliance and courage, and displayed a spirit always admired in its exercise in great commanders and others who have been suddenly called to suppress a dangerous mutiny.

These years of Professional life were varied by a brief visit to Europe, undertaken for the benefit of health, in the summer of 1856. The tour, which lasted four months, extended from England, through Belgium and France, to Switzerland. On his return he found the free soil agitation in progress, and even at that early day, "to the few friends to whom he spoke of his own opinions, declared that the South ought to take its stand upon the outer verge of its just rights, and there resist aggression, if necessary, by the sword."* In his political opinions, an ultra State-Rights Democrat, he resented any political action which might in his view lead to interference with the institution of slavery in the South. Three years after this time he was summoned with his cadets and light battery to protect the Court at Charleston in its arraignment of the memorable John Brown, about to be tried and condemned for his insane attempt to create a servile insurrection, and revolutionize Virginia. While there he witnessed the execution of the courageous and desperate fanatic, who displayed a strength of will and patient fortitude which Jackson, if not thoroughly blinded by the feelings of the hour, must at heart have admired. For there were points in common between John Brown and the "Stonewall," There was at least something of the uncompromising hostility of the former in Major Jackson, when, on entering upon the Confederate service at Harper's Ferry, at the beginning of the war, he deliberately declared that "it was the true policy of the South to take no prisoners in this war. He affirmed that this would be in the end the truest humanity, because it would shorten the contest, and prove economical of the blood of both parties; and that it was a measure urgently dictated by the interests of the Southern cause, and clearly sustained by justice."* "Stonewall" Jackson looking on at the death of John Brown is a subject for a painter's pencil and a moralist's meditations.

We have now to contemplate Major Jackson—for he speedily resumed the title under new auspices—on the theatre of the war which he invoked. When the conflict was fairly commenced by the attack on Sumter, and the consequent call by President Lincoln for a Northern army, Jackson was one of the foremost of the Southern officers to take the field. On the 21st of April, 1861, four days after Virginia, by her passage of an act of secession, had joined the Confederates, he left Lexington in command of the corps of cadets of his military school for the camp at Richmond. There he was appointed by the State authorities Colonel of Volunteers, and immediately ordered to the command of the forces

"Dabney's Life of Jackson," Vol. I. p. 167.

"Dabney's Life of Jackson," Vol. I., p. 224.

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gathering at Harper's Ferry, which had just been evacuated by the few United States troops stationed at the public works. There he entered upon the preliminary task of drilling and and organizing the new levies, until his superior officer, General Joseph E. Johnston, appeared on the field, when he was assigned to the command of four regiments of Virginia infantry, known as the First Brigade of what was then called the "Army of the Shenandoah." A month was now passed in bringing troops into the field, and making those military dispositions on either side, which determined for a long period the nature and ground of the struggle already commenced. The Confederates concentrated their forces in the Valley of Virginia, and at Manassas, in front of Washington. Leaving Harper's Ferry as an untenable position, Johnston retired upon Winchester, whence by railway and the passes of the intervening mountain he could readily support Beauregard at Manassas, where the main body of Confederate troops was assembled. When the Northern force, under Patterson, crossed the Potomac at Williamsport at the beginning of July, Jackson, who had been on duty in this quarter at Martinsburg, destroying the stock of the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad, resisted the advance of the Pennsylvania General, meeting his troops in a spirited encounter at Falling Waters. Compelled to fall back before superior numbers he invoked aid from Johnson to attack the Northern army; but no action was fought, and the whole Virginia force in this region was concentrated at Winchester, where Jackson now received his commission of brigadier-general.

The middle of the month brought the battle of Manassas, as it was called at the South—the memorable Bull Run of the Northern journalists and historians. In this engagment Jackson was destined to bear a prominent part. The battle, it will be remembered, began with an attack on the 18th of July, upon the Confederate lines at Bull Run, at Mitchell's and Blackburn's Fords, followed by the important Federal flanking movement of the 21st. Immediately on the first of these assaults, Johnston was summoned with his forces to the relief of Beauregard. Leaving Winchester, he at once set his troops in motion, Jackson with his brigade, now composed of five Virginia regiments, about twenty-six hundred strong, being among the foremost, on the 20th, to reach the Confederate lines, where he was posted in support of Longstreet's brigade at Blackburn's Ford. The battle of the 21st opened with an attack on the Confederate position at Stone Bridge, followed by the passage of the main portion of the Federal army of the stream in its rear, at Sudley's Ford, distant some eight miles from the spot where Jackson's brigade was stationed. It was not, therefore, till the great engagement of the day in the vicinity of the Henry House was well advanced that Jackson was brought into action. He came up at a critical moment, when General Bee, overpowered by the Federal troops, was driven back after a gallant fight, his forces broken and shattered. Jackson, with his fresh troops, and others which

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opportunely arrived, turned the fortunes of the day. Boldly confronting the still advancing Federal forces, they made a fresh assault, pierced the centre of the Union line, and finally drove their antagonists from the bloody field.

Jackson, who was a man by no means given to boasting, always asserted in behalf of his brigade the distinguished part we have described in the military efforts of the day. Of his signal energy on the field, his display of all the warlike enthusiasm of his nature, there was no question. When on first coming up to the scene of action he was met by General Bee with the word, "They are beating us back," he simply replied with his customary brevity and coolness, "Then we will give them the bayonet." His firmness gained the admiration of Bee, who exclaimed to his men, "There is Jackson standing like a stone wall." They were soon both involved in the hurry and carnage of the battle, and Bee fell mortally wounded, leaving this word of eulogy, sublimated in the heat of the fiery conflict, a legacy to his friend and fellow-soldier. Thenceforth Jackson was known as the Stonewall. This was the origin of the appellation, which never deserted him. Jackson was struck on the hand in the action by a fragment of shell, but made light of the disaster, refusing the attentions of the surgeons till those more severely wounded were cared for.

Two personal records of this engagement remain from his pen. One is a letter to Colonel J. M. Bennett, narrating the military movements of his brigade during the action, concluding with the declaration, "You will find, when my report shall be published, that the First Brigade was to our army what the Imperial Guard was to the First Napoleon; that, through the blessing of God, it met the thus far victorious enemy, and turned the fortunes of the day." To his wife he wrote the day after the engagement, "Yesterday we fought a great battle, and gained a great victory, for which all the glory is due *to God alone*. Though under a heavy fire for several continuous hours, I only received one wound, the breaking of the largest finger on the left hand, but the doctor says the finger can be saved. My horse was wounded, but not killed. My coat got an ugly wound near the hip. My preservation was entirely due, as was the glorious victory, to our God, to whom be all the glory, honor, and praise. Whilst great credit is due to other parts of our gallant army, God made my brigade more instrumental than any other in repulsing the main attack. This is for your own information only—say nothing about it. Let another speak praise, not myself."* Nor was the eulogy withheld. "The conduct of General Jackson," says General Beauregard in his official report of the Battle of Manassas, "requires mention, as eminently that of an able and fearless soldier and sagacious commander, one fit to lead his brigade; his efficient, prompt, timely arrival before the plateau of the Henry House, and his judicious disposition of his troops, contributed much to the success of the day. Although painfully wounded in the hand, he remained on

* "Dabney's Life of Jackson," Vol. I., p. 265–6.

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the field till the end of the battle, rendering invaluable assistance."†

It was Jackson's opinion, after the battle of Bull Run, that the Confederate army should be immediately pushed upon Washington, for he was always the advocate of energetic forward movements; but he was compelled for a time, with the rest of the troops, to inaction before Washington, while McClellan organized the various forces which were to afford him sufficient employment in the future. He thus passed the remainder of the summer in camp in the vicinity of Manassas. In October he was promoted Major-General in the Provisional Army, and shortly after was assigned to the command of the "Valley District," with his head-quarters at Winchester. This necessitated temporary separation from his brigade, which he took leave of in an animated address, closing with the encomium and appeal—"In the Army of the Shenandoah you were the First Brigade; in the Army of the Potomac you were the First Brigade; in the Second Corps of the army you are the First Brigade; you are the First Brigade in the affections of your General; and I hope, by your future deeds and bearing, you will be handed down to posterity as the First Brigade in this our second War of Independence. Farewell."

It was a favorite plan of Jackson, at this period of the war, to enter the north-western part of Virginia, rally the inhabitants favorable to the Southern cause, and, holding the line of the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad from Cumberland to Harper's Ferry, thus protect the rich upper and lower valleys from the invasions with which they were constantly threatened. The authorities at Richmond, however, failed to support him in this scheme; but he employed all the means at his command to interrupt the communications of the Union forces, and drive away such portions of them as had already gained a foothold from the Valley. On first occupying Winchester he had but a small body of troops with him, but this was not long after increased by the return to his command of his old brigade, and the arrival of the Virginian and Southern regiments, giving him, in December, about eleven thousand men. Late as was the season, he resolved with these to commence active operations. His first work was, under circumstances of considerable difficulty, to destroy an important lock of the Chesapeake and Ohio Canal above Martinsburg. This was speedily followed by an undertaking of greater magnitude, and, as it proved, of almost unprecedented hardship. With about eight thousand five hundred men, five batteries of artillery, and a few companies of cavalry, he set out from Winchester to clear Morgan and Hampshire counties of the Federal troops established at Bath, Hancock, and Romney. The force, which in numbers was amply sufficient for the purpose, set out on the 1st of January, 1862, a remarkably fine day of an open season, so mild that the soldiers left their overcoats and blankets to be brought after them in wagons. That night the weather changed, a severe northern blast bringing with it all the terrors of winter in an inclement mountainous

† Report, August 26th, 1861.

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region. A storm of sleet and snow set in, the rough unused roads, which the troops traversed on a secret forced march, were coated with ice; the wagons were slow in coming up, and for several nights the men, without coats or blankets, bivouacked in the wet, with no other resource but the camp fires. The suffering was excessive, numbers left the ranks and made their way to Winchester, officers murmured, but Jackson with his usual determination kept on, and the third day reached Bath, a distance of forty miles, where he expected to surprise and capture the Union garrison ; but they had warning of his approach, and escaped across the Potomac at Hancock, whither he pursued them. He planted a battery opposite the town, and summoned it to surrender, and the commander refusing, bombarded it vigorously. After destroying a railroad bridge in the vincity, and otherwise interrupting the communications of General Banks' army on the Potomac, Jackson marched with his forces on Romney, which, from the difficulties of the way, he did not reach till the 14th, when he found that General Kelley had escaped, with the garrison. He had accomplished his object, however, in clearing the region for the time of the Union forces, and directing the supplies of the country to his own purposes; and, having done this with an energy, and an endurance on the part of his troops worthy an important campaign, he returned to Winchester. He had proved his determination and inflexibility to the verge of rashness; and his men had fully learnt what he expected from them, and what he was ready to perform himself, for he shrank from no hardship of the camp.

Jackson had left one of his officers, General Loring, with a garrison at Romney, which he was presently moved by the Confederate Secretary of War to recall. Regarding this as an unhandsome interference with his command, Jackson sent his resignation to Richmond; it was not acted upon, however, was tacitly admitted as a protest, and, besieged by remonstrances, the "Stonewall," who could not well be spared, continued in command in the Valley.

Washington's birthday in February brought a general movement of the Northern forces. General Banks, in command of a distinct army corps, crossed the Potomac at Harper's Ferry on the 26th, immediately occupied Charlestown and Smithfield, and advanced upon Winchester, where Jackson, though beset by vastly superior forces, was, as usual, disposed to show fight. He was ordered, however, to retreat, and evacuated Winchester as Banks came up and occupied the town on the 12th of March. General Shields with his brigade was placed in command there, and Jackson, pursued along his route, retired up the Valley to Mount Jackson, about forty-five miles distant, where he was in communication with the Confederate troops at Luray, and Washington to the East. It was General Shields' design to draw him from this position and supporting force. Consequently, as he tells us, in his report of the action which ensued, he fell back from the pursuit to Winchester, on the 20th, "giving the movement all the appear-

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ance of a retreat." General Banks, meanwhile, was leaving with a considerable portion of his army for the Eastward, and Jackson, induced by these circumstances, resolved to return and attack the diminished force at Winchester. General Shields did not underrate his enemy, and made vigilant preparations for his reception on the southern approaches to the town. Jackson advanced with his accustomed impetuosity. His first day's forced march, on the 22nd, was, a distance of twenty-six miles, to Strasburg; the next day he came up about noon on the main road to the vicinity of the village of Kernstown, about three and a half miles from Winchester. Shields had already his forces in position on a neighboring height, which became the scene of the conflict. Jackson commenced the attack with resolution and with partial success, when fresh Union troops were advanced and charged upon the Confederates, who, after an obstinate struggle, were compelled to retreat, leaving their killed and wounded on the field. Jackson had underrated the numbers, if not the valor, of his opponents, and suffered defeat. He would, however, have renewed the conflict if the reinforcements which he had summoned to his aid from Luray and elsewhere, had not been prevented by a rise in the Shenandoah from joining him.*

As it was, Shields continued the pursuit to Woodstock, whence Jackson retired to his former quarters at Mount Jackson. Early in April Jackson was followed up by General Banks, who had again taken the field, and having advanced to Harrisonburgh on the 22d, wrote to Washington that Jackson "had abandoned the valley of Virginia permanently." This, however, never was a calculation in Jackson's thoughts, as General Banks presently found. Meanwhile, on the first week of May, we find Jackson moving to the west, and driving back General Milroy, who, in co-operation with Banks, was moving from that direction towards Staunton. A large part of General Banks' command was now withdrawn for the reinforcement of the army in Eastern Virginia, and Jackson, with the intent of directing the loudly called for reinforcements from McClellan, now before Richmond, again assumed the aggressive in the Valley. Frémont was threatening him from the West, across the mountains; Banks was in his front, and McDowell was dispatching General Shields against him from Fredericksburg on the East. At Newmarket, on the 20th May, Jackson was joined by Ewell; Banks was on the direct valley road, about forty miles in his front, at Strasburg. Instead of advancing in this direction, Jackson, with good generalship, turned in a flank movement to the right into the Luray Valley, and struck, with a force of about 20,000 men, directly by a forced march for Front Royal, on the Manassas railway, the next prominent station, twelve miles to the East of Strasburg. There the brave garrrison under Colonel Kenley was, on the 23d, overpowered and driven from the place by his superior numbers. Banks, on hearing of the disaster and the force

* Report of General Shields to General Banks, March 29, 1862.

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of the enemy, saw at once the danger in which Winchester was placed, and commenced his retreat to that point. There was a sharp race for the prize. Banks encountered the advance of the enemy on the way at Middletown, at Newtown, and up to Winchester, where there was a spirited contest, by which the pursuers were checked for five hours, when the harassed Union forces pushed on to Martinsburgh, and thence to the Potomac, a march of fifty-three miles, thirty-five of which were performed in one day, the army arriving at the river in forty-eight hours after the first news of the attack on Front Royal. Such was the pursuit of Stonewall Jackson in the valley of Virginia in May, 1862. A general order from his headquarters at Winchester, on the 28th, marks his exultation in the event. Within four weeds," he declared, "this army has made long and rapid marches, fought six combats and ten battles, signally defeating the enemy in each one, capturing several stands of colors and pieces of artillery, with numerous prisoners, and vast medical and army stores, and finally driven the boastful host which was ravishing our beautiful country into utter rout." Nor did he forget to add an expression of his habitual religious confidence in the support of his cause from above. "Our chief duty," he said, "to-day, is to recognize devoutly the hand of a protecting Providence;" and, in pursuance of his convictions, according to a custom which he frequently observed he ordered divine service in the camp in the afternoon.

Though successful in this undertaking, the threatened concentration of forces in his rear permitted no long interval of repose to his jaded troops. Within a few days after this act of thanksgiving Jackson was again in the saddle, retiring with his command to Winchester, which he immediately left, hastening onward to Strasburgh, where he was in danger of being cut off by the junction of Shields and Frémont. The advance of the former had already retaken Front Royal, and Frémont was near at hand on the West, forcing a passage of the mountain from Wardensville to Hardy County. Encumbered with the spoils of Winchester and the Union supplies in the lower Valley, Jackson reached Strasburg on the night of the 31st, as Frémont's advance was coming up. Employing part of his force in resisting his pursuer, Jackson pushed on his retreating column by the valley road to Newmarket. There he was in danger of being overtaken by Shields operating on his flank, the reverse of his own forward movement by the Luray Valley. Frémont, too, who had come up, was now on the direct road, closely pressing his rear, which was ably defended by Ashby with his cavalry. Near Woodstock there was a gallant charge on Colonel Patton's brigade of Jackson's rear guard, in which three of Frémont's cavalrymen dashed upon the command, broke through its ranks into the midst of the array, and two of them fell, the other escaping. The narration of this incident by Colonel Patton to Jackson called forth a characteristic reply. "If I had been able," said Patton, struck by this act of extraordinary bravery, "I would have prevented the troops

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from firing upon these three men." Jackson chagrined at the confusion which had been caused in his ranks by the assault, asked, "Why would you not have shot those men, Colonel?" "I should have spared them, General," returned the officer, "because they were brave men who had gotten into a desperate situation where it was as easy to capture them as to kill them." Jackson coldly replied, "Shoot them all, I don't want them to be brave."*

Protected from Frémont by the valor of Ashby's cavalry, and outstripping Shields on his flight, Jackson passed Harrisonburg, still pursued by the double forces of his enemy. An encounter above the latter place cost him the valuable life of his brave cavalry officer, Ashby, and Jackson himself, closely pressed, narrowly escaped death or capture at Port Republic. Frémont and Shields were near at hand rapidly converging upon him at this place. Jackson's troops were on the north of the town across the Shenandoah when the bridge which crossed the latter was suddenly seized by Shields' advance. At this moment Jackson was in the town, separated from his command, and his enemy had possession of the bridge. The incident of his escape is thus related by Mr. Cooke:—"He rode toward the bridge, and, rising in his stirrups, called sternly to the Federal officer commanding the artillery placed to sweep it. 'Who ordered you to post that gun there, sir?' 'Bring it over here.' The tone of these words was so assured and commanding that the officer did not imagine they could be uttered by any other than one of the Federal generals, and, bowing, he limbered up the piece and prepared to move. Jackson lost no time in taking advantage of the opportunity. He put spurs to his horse, and, followed by his staff. crossed the bridge at full gallop, followed by three hasty shots from the artillery, which had been hastily unlimbered and turned on him. It was too late. The shots flew harmless over the heads of the general and his staff, and they reached the Northern bank in safety." The battle which ensued at Port Republic, on the 9th of June, when Jackson turned his forces upon his pursuers, was one of the best fought and most sanguinary of the many conflicts in the Valley. The losses on both sides were heavy. It ended the pursuit of Jackson, who was now free to carry his forces to the aid of the beleaguered army at Richmond.

Summoned by General Lee, Jackson reached Ashland with his command on the 25th of June, just in time to participate in the crowning events of the campaign, which was about to culminate in the seven days' battles, and retreat of McClellan to the James River. In the first of the series of engagements on the north of the Chickahominy, at Cold Harbor, on the 27th of June, Jackson bore a prominent part, coming upon the field at the close, and turning the fortunes of the day by his bayonet charge in favor of the Confederates. The next day saw the army of McClellan in full retreat, Jackson following in the pursuit, and being engaged in the final action at Malvern Hill, where his command suffered severely. Immediately after, he returned with his

* Cooke's Life of Jackson, p. 165.

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corps to the vicinity of Richmond at Mechanicsville, whence he was presently sent to the protection of Gordonsville, now threatened by General Pope. On the 9th of August he was again in conflict with General Banks, this time at Cedar Run, where Jackson again saved the Confederates from disaster by a final charge.

General Lee's advance into Maryland now followed, attendant upon the withdrawal of McClellan's army from James River. Jackson was actively engaged in the campaign, being entrusted by General Lee with the flanking movement by Thoroughfare Gap upon the rear of Pope's army at Manassas, where he was again in action at the end of August, in the second battle at that place. In the first week of September, Jackson realized his long-cherished desire of an invasion of Maryland. He crossed the Potomac in front of Leesburg, advanced to Frederick City, and in the decisive movements which ensued, was employed in the capture of Harper's Ferry, after which he rejoined the main army, and took part in the Battle of Antietam on the 17th, where his corps, as usual, rendered distinguished service. He was with the army in its retreat into Virginia, and was encamped for a while in Jefferson County, in the vicinity of the Potomac.

At the end of October, McClellan again entered Virginia, and was presently succeeded on his southward march by General Burnside, who took up a position on the left bank of the Rappahannock, opposite Fredericksburg, to the defence of which Jackson was called from the Valley, and established on the right wing of the Confederate army. In the action at Fredericksburg, and the repulse of Burnside's forces on the 13th of December, he was again prominently engaged; and the year's campaign being now closed, enjoyed a period of comparative repose at his headquarters on the river below the city. Here he employed himself in superintending the official reports of his battles, insisting upon simplicity, and even brevity of statement. He was also, as usual, much engaged in his religious observances, which he always managed to reconcile with camp life. A famous Sabbatarian letter, which he addressed to Colonel Boteler at Richmond, was written about this time, in which he urged the repeal of the law requiring mails to be carried on Sunday. "I do not see," he wrote, "how a nation that arrays itself against God's holy day can expect to escape his wrath;" adding curiously, "the punishment of national sins must be confined to this world, as there is no nationality beyond the grave."

One more brief, fatally interrupted, campaign remained for the devoted champion of the Southern cause. In the spring of 1863, the Union forces before Fredericksburg, now under General Hooker, were again in motion. On the 29th of April, that officer having crossed the Rappahannock, established his head-quarters at Chancellorsville, on the flank of Lee's army. Jackson was promptly ordered up from his position to the left, at what had now become the front of the line. Here a flank movement was projected against Hooker's right, and it was

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while engaged in carrying out this strategy, that Jackson, returning from a personal scrutiny of his advanced line with his staff, at nine in the evening of the 2d of May, 1863, the party was mistaken for the cavalry of the enemy, and he was fired upon and mortally wounded by his own men. Nearly all his staff were killed or wounded by the volleys which were fired. Jackson was struck by three balls—in the left arm below the shoulder joint, severing the artery; below, in the same arm, near the wrist, the ball making its way through the palm of the hand, and in the palm of his right hand. This was in the immediate vicinity, about a hundred yards of the Union lines, from which, before the disabled General could be removed, a deadly fire was poured upon his escort. Under these terribly tragic circumstances, the guns of the renewed conflict sounding in his ears, he was borne with difficulty from the field to a hospital five miles distant. The next day, the great day of the battle, Sunday, his arm was amputated, and on the following he was removed eight miles further, to Guinea's Depot. His danger was evident to himself as to others. His wife was sent for, and came. He was interested in the reports of the battle, talked resolutely of military affairs, and often religiously declared his wish to be buried in "Lexington, in the Valley of Virginia;" and at the end, in moments of delirium, his thoughts reverted to the battle-field. "Order A. P. Hill to prepare for action," "Pass the infantry to the front," were expressions which escaped his lips, closing with a few words of idyllic simplicity, in touching contrast to the tales of carnage sadly recorded in these pages. "Let us cross over the river, and rest under the shade of the trees!"* So closed, on Sunday, May 10th, 1863, the life of "Stonewall Jackson." He had just reached his fortieth year. His career was certainly a remarkable one, impressed by a striking personal character. The justice or policy of the cause for which he died must be tried by other arguments than his own impressions. But there was much in his nature to admire, and something also to fear; for the convictions of such a man are to him a law, which he will fearlessly execute; and, so complex are human nature and human life, his very virtues may invigorate and intensify the dangers of his errors.

* Cooke's Life of Jackson, p. 444.

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ROSA BONHEUR.

MADEMOISELLE Rosalie, or as she is known familiarly to the public by the abbreviation of her Christian name, Rosa Bonheur, is a native of France, born at Bordeaux, in March, 1822: Her father, Raymond Bonheur, an artist of some distinction, brought her with him to Paris. After a preliminary education at a boarding-school, she was apprenticed to a seamstress, but showing, it is said an equal dislike for books and needle-work, in her preference for the pencil, she was instructed in drawing and painting by her father. Her choice in art was early made. She seems to have had an instinctive fondness for the portraiture of animal life; and though she had but limited opportunities for studies of this kind in a city, she eagerly availed herself of what might be seen in the streets of Paris. She frequented the *abattoirs* or slaughter-houses, where animals were collected, and the market-places, and in one way or another managed to draw her observations from nature. She also studied at the Louvre. The result was that when, at the age of nineteen, in 1841, she offered her first works on exhibition in the Salon of that year, they were accepted, and made for her a distinguished reputation. The subjects of the two pictures which she first placed on the walls were a group of goats and sheep, and "The Two Rabbits." Pictures of larger animals followed. Her horses and cattle pieces were celebrated in the annual exhibitions. In 1848, she exhibited a bull and sheep in bronze, modeled by herself, and received from Horace Vernet the first-class medal, with a costly Sevres vase. Her compositions were highly finished and elaborate. One, upon which she had bestowed great pains, and which ranks at the head of her performances, the *Labourage Nivernais*, was completed in 1849; and, becoming the property of the government was placed in the national collection of the works of French Artists in the gallery of the Luxembourg. Her grand spirited painting "*Le Marché aux Chevaux*," or "The Horse Fair," widely known by its exhibition in England and America, and by various engravings, was a leading attraction in the Gallery of French Pictures formed in London, in 1855. It was bought by M. Gambart, the French printseller, in London, for eight

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R Bonheur

Likeness from the original painting by Dubufe.

Johnson, Fry & Co. Publishers, New York.

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thousand dollars, who disposed of it to Mr. Wm. P. Wright of Weehawken, New Jersey, where for many years it was hung in his gallery. It has since become the property of Mr. A. T. Stewart, the well-known merchant of New York. An admirable engraving of large size of the "Horse Fair," was executed by the eminent artist Thomas Landseer, for M. Gambart. It has also been executed in a cheaper form in colors.

The London "Art Journal" of this period, thus spoke of the artist and her work, in a notice of an entertainment given to her in the city, at which various members of the Royal Academy were assembled. "Of the lady artist herself, who now deservedly takes her place among the very first painters of any age in her peculiar department, all that need be said in the way of her personal appearance is, that she is quite *petite* in size; her features are regular, very agreeable and sparkling with intelligence. Her large picture, the "Horse Fair," would be a wonderful work for any painter; but as the production of a female it is marvellous in conception and execution. One has only to imagine a group of ten or a dozen powerful Flemish horses 'trotted out,' in every possible variety of action, some of them led by men as powerful and wild-looking as themselves, and he will then have some idea of the composition of this picture. The drawing of the horses and their action is admirable; one especially, to the left of the spectator, is foreshortened with extraordinary success. The coloring of the animals is rich and brilliant, and is managed so as to produce the most striking effect."

By these and other like brilliant successes, Mademoiselle Bonheur has gained a world-wide reputation in art, as the delineator in great perfection of treatment of the various forms of animal life, involving, of course, in her larger compositions, where characteristic scenery is introduced, proportionate merit as a landscape painter. Her style is at once minute and spirited, remarkable alike for its breadth and fidelity. From the beginning of her career, she has thought no pains too great to be taken to secure an absolute air of reality in her representations. In her secluded cotttage in Paris, where she resided, an inventory of her animal establishment annexed to the premises enumerates two horses, five goats, an ox, a cow, three donkeys, sheep, dogs, birds and poultry, kept for models.

The success of Rosa Bonheur secured for her father, in 1847, the post of Director of the Free School of Design for Girls at Paris; and on his death in 1849, the position or title was conferred upon his daughter. In 1865 she was decorated with the Cross of the Legion of Honor, and, in 1868, appointed a member of the Institute of Antwerp. When in the war between France and Germany, in 1870–'71, her studio and residence at Fontainebleau, were in possession of the enemy, they were in recognition of her genius, spared and protected from the surrounding devastation, by express order of the Crown Prince of Prussia.

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DAVID GLASCOE FARRAGUT.

THIS energetic and intrepid naval officer, whose career on the Mississippi, from the Gulf of Mexico to Vicksburg, has identified him with some of the most substantial services rendered to his country in the War for the Union, was born in East Tennessee, near Knoxville, about the year 1801. His father, an intimate friend of General Jackson, at that time held the rank of major in a cavalry regiment in the service of the United States—military talents being in request in what was then a frontier region, infested by hostile Indians. On one occasion, in the childhood of David, his mother, in the absence of her husband, was required to defend her house against a party of those savage marauders, which she did with spirit, removing the children to a place of safety, and parleying with the assailants through a partially barricaded door, till Major Farragut, with his squadron of horse, opportunely came to the rescue. Scenes like this were well calculated to give strength and hardihood to a youth of spirit. We accordingly find young David, when his father was called to New Orleans to take command of a gun-boat, at the opening of the war of 1812, anxious also to enter the service. Falling in with Commodore Porter, his wishes were gratified in a midshipman's appointment on board that commander's ship, the Essex. In this famous vessel he made the passage of Cape Horn, and in his boyhood participated in that novel and remarkable career of naval conquest and adventure, which was terminated by the heroic action with two English ships, the Phœbe and Cherub—one of the bloodiest on record—in the harbor of Valparaiso. Young Farragut, boy as he was, seems to have particularly distinguished himself in this engagement. His name is mentioned with honor in the official report of Commodore Porter, as one of several midshipmen who "exerted themselves in the performance of their respective duties, and gave an earnest of their value to the service," adding that he was prevented by his youth from recommending him for promotion. He was then but thirteen, and previously to the action had been engaged in conducting one of the English prizes, taken by the Essex, from Guayaquil to Valparaiso, against the strong remonstrance of the British

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D. G. Farragut

Likeness from the last photograph from life.

Johnson, Wilson & Co. Publishers, New York.

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captain, who objected to being under the orders of a boy; but the boy insisted upon performing his duty, and was sustained in its performance.

Returning with the rest of the officers of the Essex on parole to the United States, young Farragut was placed, by Commodore Porter, at Chester, Pennsylvania, under the tuition of one of Bonaparte's Swiss Guards, who taught his pupils military tactics. Being exchanged, the youth resumed his naval career as midshipman till 1825, when, being on the West India station, he was commissioned a lieutenant. For the next sixteen years we find him engaged in various service on board the Brandywine, Vandalia, and other vessels, on the coast of Brazil, and on the receiving-ship at the Norfolk Navy Yard. He was commissioned Commander in 1841, and ordered to the sloop-of-war Decatur, in which he joined the Brazil squadron. Three years' leave of absence succeeded, when he was again on duty at Norfolk, and in 1846 was placed in command of the sloop-of-war Saratoga, of the Home Squadron. He was then for several years second in command at the Norfolk Navy Yard, and in 1851 was appointed Assistant-Inspector of Ordnance. He held this appointment for three years, when he was ordered, in 1854, to the command of the new Navy Yard, established at Mare Island, near San Francisco, California. In 1855, he was commissioned captain, remaining in charge of the Navy Yard on the Pacific till 1858, when he was ordered to the command of the sloop-of-war Brooklyn, of the Home Squadron, from which he was relieved in 1860. The opening of the Rebellion thus found him at home, awaiting orders.

His residence was at Norfolk, where he was rather in a critical position when, on the fall of Sumter, the leaders of the revolt in Virginia hurried the State out of the Union. His loyalty was well known, and, of course, exposed him to suspicion and hatred. It was evident to him that he could no longer live in Virginia in safety, without compromising his opinions, and at the last moment, the day before the Navy Yard was burned, narrowly escaping imprisonment, he left with his family for the North, his journey being interrupted by the destruction of the railroad track from Baltimore. Arrived at New York, he placed his family in a cottage at Hastings, on the Hudson, in the vicinity of New York, in readiness at the first opportunity, to enter on active service. When the navy was reinforced by the building of ships, and established on its new footing, in the first year of President Lincoln's administration of the department, when the capture of Hatteras and Port Royal had given an impulse to naval operations for the suppression of the Rebellion, this occasion was found in the organization of the expedition against New Orleans. By an order of Secretary Welles, dated January 20th, 1862, Captain Farragut was ordered to the Gulf of Mexico, to the command of the Western Gulf Blockading Squadron, with such portion of which as could be spared, supported by a fleet of bomb vessels, under Commander D. D. Porter, he was further directed to "proceed up

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the Mississippi River, and reduce the defences which guard the approaches to New Orleans, when you will appear off that city and take possession of it, under the guns of your squadron, and hoist the American flag therein, keeping possession until troops can be sent to you."

Never was a programme of such magnitude more faithfully and directly carried out. The necessary preparations, which involved many delays, having been completed, at the earliest possible moment in March, Captain Farragut entered the Mississippi in his flag-ship, the steamer Hartford, accompanied by the vessels of his squadron. He was presently followed by the mortar fleet of Porter, and everything was pushed forward to secure the object of the expedition. The bombardment of Fort Jackson was commenced on the 16th of April, by the mortar fleet, and kept up vigorously for several days, preparatory to the advance of the fleet. Before dawn, on the morning of the twenty-fourth, the way having been thus cleared, and a channel through the river obstructions opened, Captain Farragut, having made every provision which ingenuity could suggest, set his little squadron in motion for an attack upon and passage of the forts.

The fleet advanced in two columns, the right to attack Fort St. Philip and the left Fort Jackson. The action which ensued was one of the most exciting, and, we may add, confused, in the annals of naval warfare. Passing chain barriers, encountering rafts, fire-ships, portentous rams and gun-boats, fires from the forts and batteries on shore, the officers of the fleet pushed on with an energy and presence of mind which nothing could thwart. In the perils of the day, the flag-ship was not the least exposed and endangered. "I discovered," says Captain Farragut, in his report, "a fire-raft coming down upon us, and in attempting to avoid it, ran the ship on shore, and the ram Manassas, which I had not seen, lay on the opposite of it, and pushed it down upon us. Our ship was soon on fire half-way up to her tops; but we backed off, and through the good organization of our fire department, and the great exertions of Captain Wainwright and his first-lieutenant, officers and crew, the fire was extinguished. In the meantime our battery was never silent, but poured in its missiles of death into Fort St. Philip, opposite to which we had got by this time, and it was silenced, with the exception of a gun now and then. By this time the enemy's gun-boats, some thirteen in number, besides two iron-clad rams, the Manassas and Louisiana, had become more visible. We took them in hand, and, in the course of a short time, destroyed eleven of them. We were now fairly past the forts, and the victory was ours; but still here and there a gun-boat making resistance. . . . . It was a kind of guerilla; they were fighting in all directions."

Leaving Commander Porter to receive the surrender of the forts, and directing General Butler, with his troops of the land forces, to follow, Captain Farragut, with a portion of his fleet, proceeded up to New Orleans, witnessing, as he approached the city, the enormous destruction of property

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in cotton-loaded ships on fire, and other signs of devastation on the river. The forts in the immediate vicinity of the city were silenced, and on the morning of the twenty-fifth, as the fleet came up, the levee, in the words of Captain Farragut, " was one scene of desolation ; ships, steamers, cotton, coal, etc., all in one common blaze, and our ingenuity being much taxed to avoid the floating conflagration." In the midst of this wild scene of destruction, the surrender of New Orleans was demanded, and after some parley, the American flag was, on the twenty-sixth, hoisted on the Custom-house, and the Louisiana State flag hauled down from the City Hall.

More than a year of arduous labor for the land and naval forces of the Upper and Lower Mississippi remained before the possession of that river was secured to the Union. In these active operations Flag-Officer Farragut—he was appointed Rear-Admiral on the creation by Congress of this highest rank in the navy in the summer of 1862—with his flag-ship, the Hartford, was conspicuous. In the campaigns of two seasons on the river, from New Orleans to Vicksburg, ending with the surrender in July, 1863, of the latter long-defended stronghold and Port Hudson, the Hartford was constantly in active service. In these various encounters she was struck, it was said, when the good ship returned to New York for repairs in the ensuing month, in the hull, mast, spars, and rigging, two hundred and forty times by round shot and shell, and innumerable times by Minie and rifle balls. The reception of Admiral Farragut at New York, the Brooklyn Navy Yard, and at his new home at Hastings, was earnest and heartful, becoming the occasion and the man.

The attack on Mobile, on the 8th of July, 1864, crowned the long series of victories which compose the record of Admiral Farragut. The results of this engagement were the destruction of the Confederate fleet, the capture of the iron-clad ram Tennessee, and the surrender of all the forts in the harbor, with twenty-six hundred prisoners.

As a reward for this brilliant achievement, and for his other services, the rank of Vice-Admiral, corresponding to Lieut.-General in the army, was created by Congress and conferred upon Admiral Farragut.

Soon after this, at his request, he was relieved from active service, and was called to Washington, where he remained, directing the movements of the navy till the end of the war.

In 1867–8, Admiral Farragut visited the chief ports of Europe in the flag-ship Franklin, and was received with distinguished attention by the sovereigns and courts of all the leading powers. An illustrated narrative of his tour was published. He did not long survive his return. He died at Portsmouth, N. H., August 14th, 1870. His remains were brought to the city of New York for interment, at the close of the following month, and, attended by President Grant, and with every honor the Republic could bestow, were deposited in the cemetery at Woodlawn.

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BENJAMIN DISRAELI.

IN a biographical notice prefixed to an edition of his father's writings, Disraeli traces the history of the family to the end of the fifteenth century, when, with others of the Jewish faith, they were driven by the persecution of the Inquisition from their home in Spain to seek refuge in the more tolerant territories of the Venetian Republic. His ancestors, he tells us, "had dropped their Gothic surname on their settlement in terra firma, and grateful to the God of Jacob, who had sustained them through unprecedented trials, and guarded them through unheard of perils, they assumed the name of Disraeli, a name never borne before, or since, by any other family, in order that their race might be for ever recognized. Undisturbed and unmolested, they flourished as merchants for more than two centuries, under the protection of the lion of St. Mark, which was but just, as the patron saint of the Republic was himself a child of Israel. But towards the middle of the eighteenth century, the altered circumstances of England, favorable, as it was then supposed, to commerce and religious liberty, attracted the attention of my great-grandfather to Great Britain, and he resolved that the youngest of his two sons, Benjamin, the 'son of his right hand,' should settle in a country, where the dynasty seemed at length established through the recent failure of Prince Charles Edward, and where public opinion appeared definitively adverse to persecution on matters of creed and conscience." Benjamin Disraeli was married to a lady of his own Hebrew faith. He prospered in England and survived to a great old age. He had but one child, named Isaac, who received a liberal education on the continent, and after sundry miscellaneous poetical and other efforts with his pen, settled down upon criticism, history and biography, incorporating the results of his protracted studies in "The Curiosities of Literature" and other kindred productions. Gifted with an independent fortune, and occupying a somewhat isolated position, he devoted himself to courses of liberal reading with the zeal of a bibliomaniac. "He disliked business, and he never required relaxation; he was absorbed in his pursuits. In London his only amusement was to ramble among

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B. Disraeli

Likeness from a recent Photograph from life.

Johnson, Fry & Co. Publishers, New York.

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booksellers; if he entered a club, it was only to go into the library. In the country, he scarcely ever left his room, but to saunter in abstraction upon a terrace, muse over a chapter or coin a sentence. He was a complete literary character, a man who really passed his life in his library. Even marriage produced no change in these habits; he rose to enter the chamber, where he lived alone with his books, and at night his lamp was ever lit within the same walls."

Devouring books and libraries to the last, unlike many of his class, he made the public the sharer of his acquisitions, in the numerous learned and delightful essays and sketches we have spoken of—books which have charmed readers of every age and opened the path to learning to many an ingenuous youthful mind.

His son, Benjamin Disraeli, the English parliamentary leader, was born at the family residence in Bloomsbury Square, London, in December, 1805. Inheriting his father's tastes, or profiting by the literary opportunities of his youth, he very early became an author. Having received a careful education at school, like his father he exhibited a disinclination to a business or professional career, and following further the example of his parent he found for himself an entrance upon a literary life. In 1826, before he was of age, he began by contributing articles to the "Representative," a daily London newspaper in the tory interest, which was published but a few months, and the same year published the first portion of his novel, "Vivian Grey," which was completed by the issue of three additional volumes the following season. As described in a contemporary notice by the "London Magazine," it is "the history of an ambitious young man of rank, who by dint of talent, personal advantages and audacity, becomes the dictator of certain circles in high life, some of the recent occurrences and actors in which he has taken the liberty to describe with great freedom." A certain tumultuous vivacity in the style, the daring of the animal spirits of youth, added force to its satiric touches. It was the talk of the town and eminently successful.

"It is curious at this time of day," writes that excellent biographer, Mr. Samuel Stiles, in a sketch of Disraeli, "to read 'Vivian Grey' by the light thrown upon its pages by the more recent career of its author. Thus regarded, it is something of a prophetic book. It contained the germs of nearly all the subsequent fruit of Mr. Disraeli's mind,—to the extent of his political aspirations, his struggles and his successes. They are all foreshadowed there. Although in the third volume (published a year after the first two), he disclaimed the charge of having attempted to paint his own portrait in the book, it is nevertheless very clear, that, in imagination, he was the hero of his own tale, and that the characters or puppets which he exhibited and worked were such as he would have formed had he the making of the world; nay, more, they were such as he subsequently found ready-made to his hand. The motto standing on the title-page bespeaks the character of Vivian Grey:

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'Why then the world's mine oyster,
Which I with sword will open.'"

Following the production of "Vivian Grey," the author made an extensive tour on the continent and in the East, visiting Italy, Greece, and Albania, and passing the winter of 1829–'30 at Constantinople. The ensuing season he traveled in Syria and Palestine, and after journeying through Egypt and Nubia, returned to England in 1831. While on this tour, the influence of which is seen in the oriental coloring of many of his writings, he wrote and published his novels, "Contarini Fleming," and "The Young Duke," books with the merits and faults of "Vivian Grey," brilliant in style, abounding in talent, piquantly seasoned with satire to attract attention, with a prevalent air of exaggerated effect. The Reform Bill being in agitation when Disraeli reached England, after his travels, he made vigorous efforts to secure an entrance into political life. He stood, with recommendations from Hume and O'Connell to back him, for the small borough of Wycombe, in Bucks, his position being that of a candidate of Radical opinions, whom, however, the Tories as well as the Radicals supported, from opposition to the Whigs. Defeated in this election, he became a candidate, in 1833, in the Radical interest, for the borough of Marylebone; describing himself in an address to the electors as a man who "had already fought the battle of the people," and who "was supported by neither of the aristocratic parties," and avowing himself a friend to Triennial Parliaments and Vote by Ballot. He was again unsuccessful; and seeing no chance of being elected by any other constituency, he resumed his literary occupations. The "Wondrous Tale of Alroy," and "The Rise of Iskander,' published together in 1833, provoked some critical ridicule from the exuberance of their style, as well as from the extravagance of the author's claims in their behalf as novelties in the modern literary art. They were followed by "The Revolutionary Epic," a quarto poem, the high pretensions of which were not confirmed by any impression it made on the reading public. The first part only was published. In the same year, 1834, he wrote "The Crisis Examined," and in 1835, another political pamphlet, entitled "A Vindication of the English Constitution.' In this year he became a candidate for the borough of Taunton; and as he now came forward in the Conservative interest, O'Connell, in reply to an attack by Disraeli, made on him at the husting, issued a diatribe against him, in which he accused him of inconsistency in language coarser and more personal than was perhaps ever used before on any similar occasion. "If his genealogy were traced," said he, "he would be found to be the true heir of the impenitent thief who died upon the cross." This led to a hostile correspondence between Disraeli and O'Connell's son, Morgan, who declined to meet his challenger in a duel. Disraeli was bound over to keep the peace, and the correspondence was published. In the course of the newspaper altercations attendant upon this affair, Disraeli explained his political principles in a manner intended to show how his professions and conduct in 1831 and 1833,

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might be reconciled with his professions and conduct in 1835. In a letter addressed to O'Connell himself, after his failure in the election, he said, alluding to this fact of his repeated failure: "I have a deep conviction that the hour is at hand when I shall be more successful. I expect to be a representative of the people before the repeal of the Union. We shall meet again at Philippi; and rest assured that, confident in a good cause, and in some energies which have not been altogether unimproved, I will seize the first opportunity of inflicting upon you a castigation which will make you remember and repent the insults that you have lavished upon Benjamin Disraeli." This was thought bravado at the time; but the prediction was realized. After an interval of two years, during which he published his novels "Henrietta Temple" and "Venetia," he was, at the age of thirty-two, in the general election of 1837, returned to Parliament as Conservative member for Maidstone. But the list of his failures was not yet closed. His maiden speech, prepared beforehand, and in a very high-flown style, was a total failure; he was accompanied through it by the laughter of the House, and at last was obliged to sit down. But before he did so he energetically uttered the following sentences, "I have begun several times many things, and have often succeeded at last. I shall sit down now, but the time will come when you will hear me." This proved to be true. Speaking little for some time, and carefully training himself to the Parliamentary style and manner, he began, about 1839, to obtain the attention of the House, and by the year 1841, he was recognized as the leader of the "Young England Party," who were trying to give a new form and application to Tory principles. His marriage, in 1839, with Mrs. Wyndham Lewis, the wealthy widow of his Parliamentary colleague for Maidstone, gave his talents the social means necessary for their full success in public life. It was during the Peel ministry of 1841–'46, that he acquired his highest distinction as a master of Parliamentary invective: during the latter portion of this period, his attacks on Peel were incessant. He was then no longer member for Maidstone, but for Shrewbury. After the repeal of the Corn Laws, and the retirement of Sir Robert Peel from office, Disraeli labored, in conjunction with Lord George Bentinck, to form the new Protectionist party, as distinct from both the Peel Conservatives and the Whigs. The results were decisive. After Lord George Bentinck's death, in 1848, Disraeli, elected for Bucks, in 1847, became the leader of the Protectionist or old Tory party in the House of Commons; and he led it with such consummate ability, that, on the retirement of Lord John Russell's cabinet in 1852, and the formation of a Tory government under Lord Derby, he became Chancellor of the Exchequer. This government lasted only from March to December, 1852, when it broke down on Disraeli's budget. The coalition ministry of Lord Aberdeen succeeded, to be followed by that of Lord Palmerston, which fell before the opposition to the Conspiracy to Murder Bill, which appeared to the

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national jealousy of the time to be too favorable to the French government; and Lord Derby, in February, 1858, was again summoned to power, and for the second time conferred the Chancellorship of the Exchequer on Disraeli, who, with that office, resumed the leadership of the House of Commons. At the suggestion of his chief, who wished to carry a substantial measure of electoral reform, whilst still the country was free from clamor; Disraeli, in February, 1859, brought forward his elaborate bill, a principal feature of which was to ensure a lateral extension of the franchise, so that the whole body of the educated classes should be admitted to the suffrage without regard to property qualification. The attempt to carry the bill was unsuccessful; and it was finally defeated in the House of Commons on the 31st day of March. An appeal to the country followed, the results of which were so little cheering to the Derby administration, that they resigned in June, 1859, and for seven years thereafter, their party remained in the cold shade of opposition.

"Disraeli is known as an ardent advocate of 'that sacred union between Church and State, which has hitherto been the chief means of our civilzation, and is the only security of our religious liberties;' and he signalized his long period of opposition by taking a prominent part, both in Parliament and elsewhere, in confronting the ecclesiastical legislature of the Liberal party. Five of his speeches on church matters, delivered between the 4th of December 1860, and the 25th of November, 1864, were edited with a preface by a 'Member of the University of Oxford,' with the title of 'Church and Queen.' The speeches delivered by Disraeli in the House of Commons in opposition to Gladstone's Budgets of February, 1860, and April, 1862, were published as strictures on 'Mr. Gladstone's Finance, from his accession to office in 1853, to his Budget of 1862.' To the same period of official vacation, belongs the republication, with 'purely literary connections' of the 'Revolutionary Epic,' the first small issue of which, fifty copies, had taken place thirty years before.

"The month of July, 1866, found Lord Derby once more in power, with Disraeli for the third time as his Chancellor of the Exchequer. They resolved to attempt a settlement of the long agitated question of Reform, which so many administrations had either failed to solve, or else had agreed to shelve. The franchise was to be given to the working classes, in the words of Lord Derby, 'with no niggard hand;' but, though he found in Disraeli a willing coadjutor, their course was seriously retarded and embarrassed by the hesitations, fears and disapproval of many members of their own party. It was upon Disraeli that the conciliation and 'education' of the malcontents chiefly devolved; and in this process he was so successful that in 1867 the Tories were induced to accept a policy repugnant to their most cherished traditions, and to pass a measure of Radical Reform which made the parliamentary franchise depend on household suffrage. The professed hope of the promoters of this measure was that of penetrating

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to a stratum of Conservative feeling which was said to underlie the liberalism of the lower middle classes. The attitude of Disraeli with regard to Reform throughout the larger proportion of his political career is exhibited in a volume, edited by Mr. Montague Corry, a barrister of Lincoln's Inn and entitled 'Parliamentary Reform. A Series of Speeches on that Subject delivered in the House of Commons, by the Right Hon. B. Disraeli, 1841–66.' The memorable Speeches at Edinburgh, in which Disraeli claimed to have 'educated' his party to the passing of the Reform Bill, and which gavt considerable umbrage to some of his adherents, were published 'by authority' with the title of 'The Chancellor of the Exchequer in Scotland; being two Speeches delivered by him in the city of Edinburgh, on the 29th and 30th of October, 1867.'

"On the retirement of Lord Derby in February, 1868, Disraeli succeeded him as First Lord of the Treasury; and his short occupancy of power was signalised by the favor which he showed to the Protestantism and even the Orangeism of Ireland when the question of the disestablishment of the church of that country was agitated by Gladstone, into whose hands the Priemiership fell upon the resignation of Disraeli in December, 1868. On this occasion the latter accepted for his wife a promotion to the peerage of the United Kingdom with the title of Viscountess Beaconsfield. As leader of the opposition in the House of Commons, Disraeli took action against his rivals' Bill for the Abolition of the Irish Church establishment in 1869, to which, whilst virtually accepting the disestablishment and disendowment of that Church, he proposed a series of amendments which he soon ceased to defend, and the effect of which in Gladstone's calculation, would have been to add one or two millions to the existing endowment of the Church. With reference to the Irish Land Bill, the passing of which was the great work of the session of 1870, Disraeli and some of his adherents undertook to demonstrate the inconsistency of the Bill with the rights of property, whilst they explicitly or virtually acknowledged the necessity of buying off agrarian disaffection in Ireland. The final adoption of the Bill, in its complete form was furthered by the absence of systematic opposition, and more especially by the forbearance of Disraeli, who, throughout the session, avoided unnecessary occasions of conflict."*

During the progress of this extraordinary parliamentary career, Disraeli maintained his reputation in literature, while serving his interests in politics, by the production of a series of novels, in which he engaged the attention of the public in the discussion of his peculiar views. "Coningsby; or the New Generation," published in 1844; "Sybil, or the Two Nations," in 1845; "Tancred, or the New Crusade," in 1847; to which may be added "Lothair" in 1870—all more or less, stripped of their romantic accessories, belong to the class of political or social essays. The author made them the vehicle for the presentation of his peculiar views on government and

* English Encyclopedia.

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society, the modified system of toryism in its incorporation with modern institutions which he had adopted; his idiosyncrasies in his advocacy of the faculties of the Jewish race, his caustic personalities and satire, under thin disguises, of political opponents. Though no writer of the time has afforded such abundant opportunities for the severities of criticism, few have managed upon the whole to be more successful. His books, spite of their extravagance, perhaps by virtue of it have always secured a multitude of readers ; the latest, "Lothair," certainly not the least faulty in style, having, in its season, secured an immense popularity throughout Europe and America. There are other minor miscellaneous literary works of Disraeli, and one of some importance as a contribution to the political history of the times—a biography of his parliamentary associate and leader, Lord George Bentinck.

The marriage of Disraeli, already mentioned, proved a very happy one, bringing wealth and influence to the author and politician, who ever found in his wife his best and truest supporter. The dedication to her of his novel "Sybil," bears testimony to her virtues. "I would," he writes, "inscribe these volumes to one whose noble spirit and gentle nature ever prompt her to sympathise with suffering; to one whose sweet voice has often encouraged, and whose taste and judgment have ever guided their pages; the most severe of critics, but a perfect wife." Again, in a public speech at Edinburgh, in 1867, he spoke of his partner as "that gracious lady to whom he owed so much of the happiness and success of his life."

After a protracted illness, this lady expired on the 15th of December, 1872, and was buried the following week in the family vault in Hughenden Church. The ceremony, as described in the papers of the day, differed little from a humble village funeral, and was touching in its simplicity. The weather was very wet; nevertheless Mr. Disraeli walked bareheaded through the rain, and reverently followed the remains of his late partner to the vault. "Lady Beaconsfield," says the writer in the "Graphic," "was much beloved in Hughenden, where her simple deeds of kindness and charity towards the poor and sick, and her graceful affection for her husband, will not easily be forgotten."

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Angela G B Coutts

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THE BARONESS BURDETT-COUTTS.

THIS English lady, born on the 25th of April, 1814, so eminently distinguished for her pecuniary liberality, and many works of enlightened practical beneficence, is the youngest daughter of Sir Francis Burdett, renowned for his liberal political opinions and his advocacy of popular rights in the British Parliament during the first quarter of the present century. Throughout that period, few names were oftener in men's mouths in England, than that of Sir Francis Burdett. The contested election struggles for the representation of Middlesex in the first decade, followed by his committal in the Tower for a letter addressed to his constituency, denying the power of the House of Commons to imprison delinquents, furnished a constant excitement to the electors of the metropolis in those days of struggle for constitutional liberty. Beside his efforts for political reform, he exerted himself in the philanthropic work of improving the management of Cold Bath Fields and other prisons. Sir Francis, in early life, married Sophia, the daughter of the wealthy banker, Thomas Coutts. This personage, familiarly known as "Tommy Coutts," was the descendant of an Edinburgh merchant, whose son, James, had settled in London as a merchant, and subsequently becoming a banker, had founded the well-known house in the Strand. He was joined in the enterprise by his brother Thomas, who, by survivorship, became sole proprietor of the bank, and the accumulator of immense wealth. He had in early or middle life married an estimable young woman, but of humble circumstances, a superior domestic in his brother's family, by whom he had three daughters, who, aided by their handsome prospects, had formed distinguished alliances with the nobility, becoming the Marchioness of Bute, the Countess of Guilford, and Lady Burdett. With his daughters thus established in the world, at about the age of seventy-five, his wife at that time being completely broken down in health, and overcome with infirmities, with little consciousness of what was going on around her, he fell in, at Cheltenham, with an actress, with whom he at once formed a peculiar attachment. This was Harriet Mellon, the daughter of an Irishwoman, of the peasant class by birth, who had begun life in Cork as a semps-

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tress, and attracted by her beauty a military gentleman of somewhat uncertain position, calling himself Lieutenant Mellon of the Madras Native Infantry, to whom she was married in 1777, and with whom she went to reside in London. The only advantage to her of this union, was the birth of her daughter, Harriet, which occurred in Westminster; for, before this event, her husband had departed for India, dying, it is said, on the voyage, and she was left with her child to support herself as best she could. While in Ireland, she had been for a time attached to a strolling company of players, among whom she had been admitted in the capacity of dresser, wardrobe keeper, and money-taker at the door. The pantominist who presided over the company, now turning up in London, Mrs. Mellon joined his strolling band in her former capacity of dress-maker, in their excursions through England, and, after a short time, was married to a Mr. Entwisle, a musician in the traveling orchestra. She was now, though in a subordinate capacity, permanently associated with the stage, and, naturally enough, brought up her child to the same profession. Being a woman of extraordinary acuteness and great managing talent, she looked out for her daughter's education from the start, and was careful to guard her from the immoral tendencies of her vagrant mode of life. The girl herself early displayed a remarkably lively, vivacious disposition, a creature of impulse and sensibility, of hearty generous emotions—qualities which, with a healthy and engaging personal appearance, constituted her capital in the business of life. It was the time of youthful prodigies. Indeed, the children of strolling players, where they had any capacity, were, as a matter of course, brought upon the stage. So Miss Mellon, at the age of ten, made her first appearance at the theatre at Ulverstone, in the character of "Little Pickle," in the farce of "The Spoiled Child;" which was succeeded by her representation of the part of "Priscilla Tomboy," in the farce of "The Romp." The latter character was one in which Mrs. Jordan, then in the heyday of her powers, was very famous; and when Miss Mellon, a few years afterwards, Sheridan having become acquainted with her talents in the provinces, introduced her to an engagement at Drury Lane, it was in Mrs. Jordan's parts, or as her companion rather than rival, that she became known to London audiences. Her great success was in her performance of "Volante," in Tobin's comedy of "The Honeymoon," a part in which she was cast at the first performance of the play, and which she made her own. While enjoying this success in the metropolis, her parents, Mr. and Mrs. Entwisle, were residing in Cheltenham, the mother constantly drawing upon her daughter for support, which the generous Harriet was quite willing to contribute. She had become responsible for the building of a fine house in that place, which the Entwisles let out on speculation; and, one day, there being a demand for more money, Miss Mellon agreed to go down and give a performance in aid of the failing funds. The enterprizing Mrs. Entwisle was of course ready to do all the trumpeting, and

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take every means for the sale of tickets. And this brings us round to the banker, Thomas Coutts, who happened to be then at Cheltenham, recruiting his health. Always careless in dress, of habits exclusively formed in the life of a man of business, he would have attracted little attention from Mrs. Entwisle, had she not been informed, without knowing his name, that he was spoken of by his valet as one of the richest people in London, and a very unhappy sort of a gentleman, his wife going out of her mind, which so preyed upon his spirits, that he was seeking the fashionable watering-place for a change. This hint the mother of the actress turned to account, soliciting a subscription for a box at the coming benefit night. No immediate answer was returned; but the banker, meeting the actress in his walks, introduced himself to her from his acquaintance with her face in the Drury Lane green-room, apologized for his delay in answering the request, and handed her an enclosure of five guineas for a box to be kept for Mr. Coutts. From that moment, it is said, the prescient mother had her eye on the great banker as a matrimonial alliance for her daughter. The five new guineas were carefully set aside by Miss Mellon, who had always a tinge of superstition, to be kept as "luck money." Certainly, her good luck was thenceforward in the ascendant. The acquaintance formed with the banker was kept up by him with the actress in London. He became a regular visitant at her lodgings, where, according to numerous anecdotes given by the daughter's biographer, Mrs. Cornwell Baron-Wilson, the mother was assiduous in all those little cares so engaging to such an old gentleman, forlorn in the midst of his abundance. "As for Mr. Coutts himself," says the writer, "he was exactly the sort of person, and in exactly the position, to fall in with Mrs. Entwisle's schemes. He was eccentric, and very shrewd in worldly matters, but open to being won by 'a soft word,' as the royal brothers, and many needy dandies of the peerage knew. Then there was a strong vein of romance—high-flown romance—beneath all this shrewdness; also a great love of witty society, and more especially that of the green-room. His position, notwithstanding his wealth, was lonely in the extreme, as regards a domestic circle of affection; for his daughters had been long married, and his poor wife was not companionable, or even sensible of his presence. It will be readily seen what a chance there was for the wheedling Irishwoman and her respectful daughter (for this was the attitude which she assumed), when they received a visit from the solitary *millionaire*, and devoted themselves to preparing all the trifling comforts which servants would not do of themselves; and their master, engrossed in business, forgot to order. In time, he regularly took his luncheon in Little Russell Street at two, and if his family wanted to see him, they knew where to go."

Matters continued in this way during the lifetime of Mrs. Coutts; her growing infirmities, in the beginning of 1815, being brought to a sudden termination from the effects of a disaster in falling into the fire. The event found her husband confined to his bed

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by illness, from which he rose to stagger into the presence of his friend, the actress, with the intelligence.

In this illness he was for some time prostrated, and the presence of Miss Mellon, whose attentions had long since become habitual to him, seemed now indispensable for his recovery. An arrangement was accordingly made for a private marriage, which was entered upon and announced in the *Times* newspaper, early in March, hardly two months after the decease of the banker's wife. At the time of this union, Mr. Coutts was at about the age of eighty-four, and Miss Mellon approaching forty. In the month preceding she had taken her farewell of the stage, after a prosperous career of twenty years on the London boards, in the part of Audrey, in "As You Like It." Mr. Coutts now improved in health, though slowly, and survived for seven years, dying in 1822. By his will he left the whole of his vast property to his wife. Considering herself as a trustee of this enormous wealth, for the benefit of his family, she immediately settled large annuities upon his daughters, who had been already greatly enriched by his gifts, receiving each a marriage portion of one hundred thousand pounds. Mrs. Coutts, from her wealth and fine personal qualities, now held a distinguished position in English society. We get an interesting glimpse of her in the autumn of 1825, in the Diary of Sir Walter Scott, on occasion of her visit to Abbotsford. She was then visiting various seats of the nobility in Scotland, traveling in state, with an imposing equipage, accompanied by Lady Charlotte Beauclerk and her brother, who had recently become Duke of St. Albans. The latter, now a young man of twenty-four, already her suitor, was in due time to become her husband.

After a delay of a year or so, Mrs. Coutts, in June, 1826, became the Duchess of St. Albans. The scene was now reversed; a young wife with an old husband had become an old wife with a young husband. She maintained the new relation with her accustomed ease and pliability of disposition for ten years, when she expired, after a short illness. True to her sense of responsibility to her benefactor, the wealthy banker, she made large bequests by will to the members of his family, leaving the great bulk of her property to his granddaughter, Miss Angela Burdett. She is said, in the fourteen years previous to her death, out of the proceeds of the fortune given to her by her husband, estimated in his will at nine hundred thousand pounds, and from the returns from the banking-house, in which his interest was retained, to have bestowed nearly four hundred thousand pounds upon his family. A contemporary paragraph in the London *Morning Herald*, cited by Mrs. Baron Wilson, estimated the amount of Miss Burdett's fortune thus acquired at the respectable sum of one million, eight hundred thousand pounds. Miss Coutts also now became principal proprietor of the Banking-House of Coutts & Co., a fortune in itself.

Fortunately, with this extraordinary legacy, the recipient was gifted also

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with the generous spirit of the testator. Numerous anecdotes are related of the benevolent disposition of the Duchess of St. Albans. On one occasion, when the distress of the Irish peasantry was extreme, in a threatened general famine, she fitted out a ship entirely at her own expense, laden with clothing, and all sorts of provisions, which she sent to the sufferers. Her good feeling towards her old associates on the stage was never relinquished, and she had many opportunities of serving them; while in her days of comparative poverty, her slender purse had always been at the command of her parents.

On coming into possession of her vast legacy, Miss Burdett, by royal sign manual, in gratitude to the memory of her grandfather, assumed his name, and was thenceforth known as Miss Angela Burdett-Coutts. Her subsequent career is to be traced in the social annals of England, and by her munificent deeds of charity, many of them of too important a character and public in their nature to escape observation. When the particulars of her life shall, as they probably will hereafter, be given to the world, much of interest relating to her will doubtless be disclosed; at present, readers at a distance must be content with a few scattered notices of her entertainments, her balls and parties, in the published diaries of Moore and Crabb Robinson, with the latter of whom in particular she seems to have lived on quite friendly terms. Robinson, on one occasion, acknowledging a donation from Miss Coutts of a hundred pounds for a hospital in which he was interested, pronounces the donor "the most generous and delicately generous person he knew." Among the celebrities whom he meets at her table are Sir Charles Napier, Chevalier Bunsen, Babbage, Charles Young, the poet Wordsworth, and not least the Duke of Wellington, who was said at one time, in his later years, to have been a suitor for her hand or wealth. This was the gossip of the London season—for the Duke was fond of money; but he probably had little encouragement in seeking it in that direction, and he was not destined to add another to the list of anomalous marriages in the family history.

For information respecting the general direction of Miss Coutts' life, we cannot do better than cite the account given in one of the English biographical works of the day. She has exercised the extensive power conferred upon her by the gift of the Duchess of St. Albans, of benefiting her less fortunate fellow-creatures, not only by the ordinary method of subscribing largely to public institutions, but by working out her own wise and benevolent projects. A consistently liberal churchwoman, in purse and opinion, her munificence to the Establishment in all parts of the world has become historical. Besides contributing large sums towards building new churches and new schools in various poor districts throughout the country, she erected and endowed at her sole cost, the handsome church of St. Stephen's, Westminster, with its three schools and parsonage, and more recently, another church at Carlisle. She endowed, at an outlay of little short of fifty

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thousand pounds, the three colonial bishoprics of Adelaide, Cape Town, and British Columbia; besides founding an establishment in South Australia for the improvement of the aborigines. She also supplied the funds for Sir Henry James' Topographical Survey of Jerusalem. In no direction have Miss Coutts' sympathies been so fully and practically expressed as in favor of the poor and unfortunate of her own sex. The course taught at the national schools, and sanctioned by the Privy Council, included many literary accomplishments which a young woman of humble grade may not require on leaving school; but the more familiar arts essential to her after-career were overlooked. By Miss Coutts' exertions, the teaching of *common things*, such as sewing and other household occupations was introduced. In order that the public grants for educational purposes might reach small schools in remote rural as well as in neglected urban parishes, Miss Coutts worked out a plea for bringing them under the required government inspection by means of traveling or ambulatory inspecting schoolmasters, and it was adopted by the Committee of the Privy Council for Education.

Miss Coutts' exertions in the cause of reformation, as well as that of education, have been no less successful. For young women who had lapsed out of the well-doing part of the community, Miss Coutts provided a shelter and means of reform in a small establishment at Shepherd's Bush. Nearly one half of the cases which passed through that reformatory during the seven years that it existed, resulted in new and comparatively prosperous lives in the colonies. Again, when Spitalfields became almost a mass of destitution, Miss Coutts began a sewing school there for adult women, not only to be taught, but to be fed and provided with work; for which object government contracts are undertaken and successfully executed. Experienced nurses are sent daily from this unpretending charity amongst the sick, who are provided with wine and other comforts; while outfits are distributed to poor servants, and winter clothing to deserving women.

Miss Coutts has also taken great interest in judicious emigration. When a sharp cry of distress arose in the island of Girvan, in Scotland, she advanced a large sum to enable the starving families to seek better fortune in Australia. Again the islanders of Cape Clear, Shirken, etc., close to Skibbereen, in Ireland, when dying of starvation, were relieved from the same source by emigration, and by the establishment of a store of food and clothing; by efficient tackle, and by a vessel, to help them to their chief means of livelihood—fishing. By an arrangement with Sir Samuel Cunard, Miss Coutts enabled a great many families to emigrate from all parts of the United Kingdom at a time of wide-spread distress.

One of the black spots of London in that neighborhood, once known to and dreaded by the police as Nova Scotia Gardens, was bought by Miss Coutts; and upon the large area of squalor and refuse, she erected the magnificent model dwellings called Columbia Square, consisting of separ-

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ate tenements, let out at low weekly rentals to upwards of three hundred families. Close to these dwellings, she caused to be erected at a cost of two hundred thousand pounds, (more than a million dollars) the magnificent structure known as Columbia Market, intended for the convenience of the small dealers and traders of that populous and indigent locality in the sale and supply of cheap articles of food, with a special adaptation for the sale of fish, the philanthropic donor thinking it desirable to encourage the use of fresh fish as a common article of diet for the poor of London, in preference to inferior qualities or portions of butcher's meat, which had become greatly enhanced in price. In the autumn of 1871, this costly building, erected with an eye not only to utility, but to elegance and beauty, was formally presented by her to the Corporation of London.

For these and other services to her country, the title of Baroness was conferred in 1871 by Queen Victoria upon Miss Burdett-Coutts.

In further acknowledgment of the noble gift of Columbia Market bestowed to the Corporation of the City of London for the benefit of the poor of the East End, the Common Council, in July, 1872, in a public ceremony, presented to Lady Burdett-Coutts the freedom of the city. It was accompanied by a complimentary address enclosed in a gold casket of beautiful construction, paneled in compartments, one bearing the arms and supporters of her ladyship, the other seven representing tableaux of acts of mercy, emblematic of her beneficence—"Feeding the Hungry," "Giving Drink to the Thirsty," "Clothing the Naked," "Visiting the Captive," "Lodging the Homeless," "Visiting the Sick," and "Burying the Dead." The four cardinal virtues, Prudence, Justice, Temperance, and Fortitude, supported the box at the corners. The lid, which is domed and surmounted by the city arms, bore on its front an engraving of a fishing scene, in allusion to the establishment of the fish market. In her reply to the addresses of the Lord Mayor and Chamberlain of London, on occasion of the presentation, she alluded in graceful terms to the interest which the proceedings of the day would excite in the question of "a wholesome, varied, and abundant supply of food for the health and comfort of all classes," an interest which she had evidently philosophically studied in its details and generalities.

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HIRAM POWERS.

THIS distinguished American sculptor was born at Woodstock, Vermont, July 29th, 1805. His father was a small farmer of the place, also, as he is described by the artist, 'half blacksmith and half ox-yoke-maker, who had served an apprenticeship to nothing, but possessed a certain skill in whatever he undertook. He valued himself on the curves of his ox-bows and yokes, and could *strike* with the blacksmith himself." * Becoming bondsman to a friend, this parent lost all the little property he possessed; and an untoward season for farming succeeding this calamity, the family, which included seven children, five of whom were at home, were driven to great straits for their support. One of the sons, a youth of talent, had obtained sufficient as a school teacher to pursue his education at Dartmouth College, and had gone to the West, and become engaged in editing a newspaper at Cincinnati. This appears to have turned the thoughts of his father in that direction, and led him to emigrate with his family to the west. In 1819, when Hiram was at the age of about fourteen, they all set off upon the journey together in three wagons, with the household goods and money which remained, and travelling through the state of New York, made their way to the Ohio, which they descended in a flat boat.

Upon reaching Cincinnati, by the aid of the son settled there, the elder Powers, with his family, were soon established upon a small farm, a few miles from the city. Unhappily it was badly located in the neighborhood of a marsh, the miasma from which infected the whole family with fever, and caused the death of the father. The family was, in consequence of this double disaster, broken up and scattered. Hiram, the future artist, was disabled by his illness, and incapacitated for work for a year. He at length obtained a situation in a produce store in Cincinnati, his business being to watch the wagons that came into town, bringing wheat and whiskey, and direct them to his employer, and afterwards roll the barrels in and out of the building. This employment was continued till the "concern" was broken up, when his brother, the

* Seven Sittings with Powers the Sculptor, by the Rev. Dr. Henry W. Bellows.—"Appleton's Journal," 1869.

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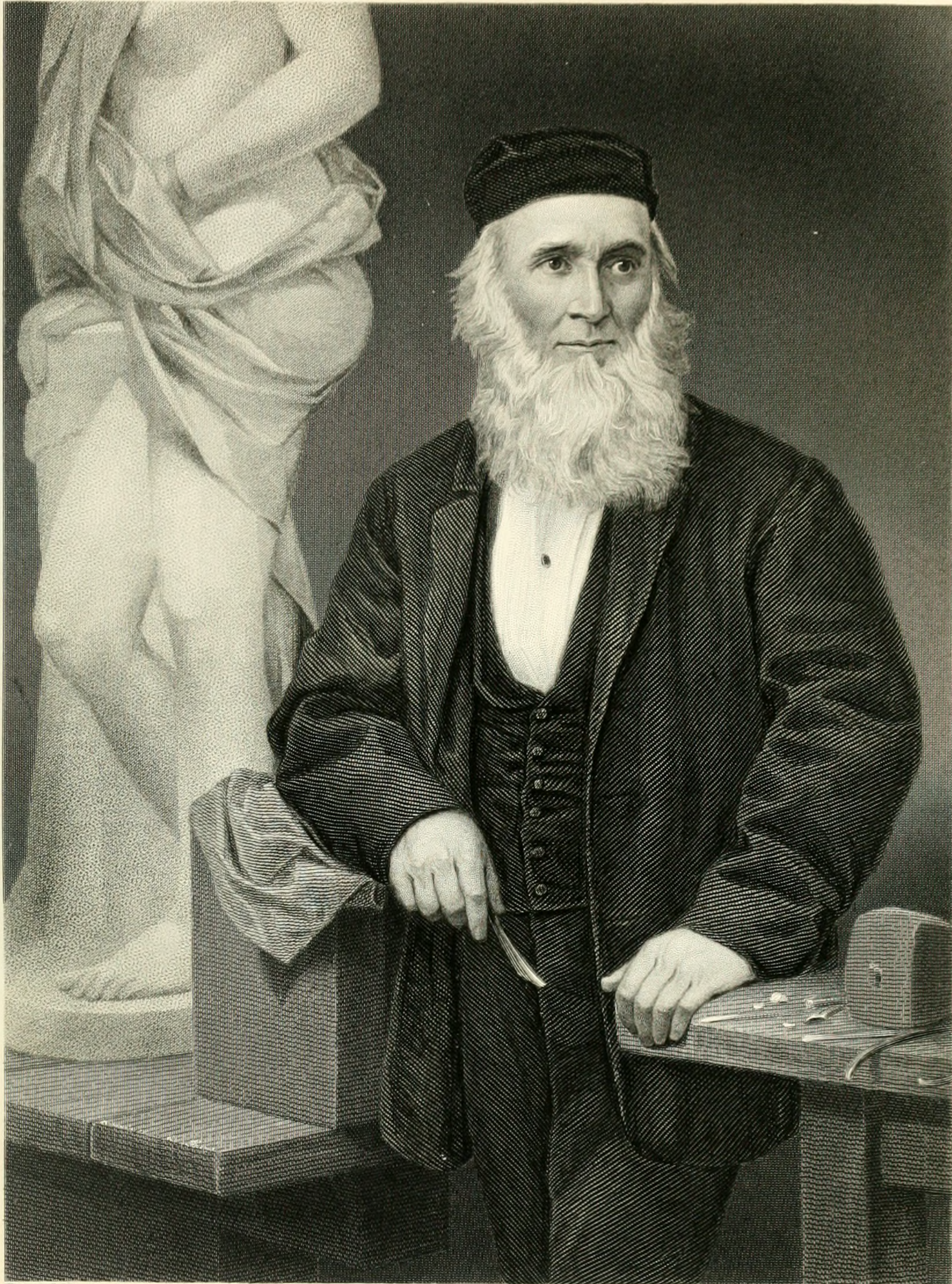

Painted by Alonzo Chappel

Hiram Powers

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editor, created a new occupation for Hiram by making an agreement with an hotel-keeper to furnish him with his exchange newspapers, with which he was to open a reading-room, to be free to the guests of the house, but for the use of which outside subscriptions were to be paid. Hiram was to be placed in charge of this, and receive whatever could be made out of it. The reading-room was opened, but the pecuniary result, whether from the mismanagement of the landlord, or the reluctance of the good people of Cincinnati to pay for what they were in the habit of obtaining gratis, was next to nothing.

This resource failing, the disappointed youth, "looking anxiously around for the means of living, fell in with a worthy man, a clock-maker and organ-builder, who was willing to employ him in collecting bad debts in the country." Mounted on an old horse, in what was rather an adventurous pursuit in those days in the West, young Powers was so successful that, after collecting the debts, his employer proposed to set him at work in the clock-and-organ factory. "He thought he had some rough work there, he said, which even so wholly unskilled a hand as mine might perform. I could afford to refuse no proposition that promised me bread and clothes, for I was often walking the street hungry, with my arms pressed close to my sides to conceal the holes in my coat-sleeves. So I went into the shop, and the master gave me some brass-plates to thin down with the file. They were parts of the stops of an organ he was building, and required to be very nicely levelled and polished; but my business was only to prepare them for the finisher. The boss was to come in, after a day or two, and see how I got along. Now, I always had a mechanical turn, and had whittled out a great many toys, and made a great many pewter guns, in my boyhood. I took hold, therefore, of the brass plates and the files with a confidence that I could surprise my employer; and, although I blistered my hands badly at once, I stuck to them with a will. My employer did not look in for several days, and, when he did come, I had already finished several plates. He took one up, and cast his eye along it; then put it upon a level table, and cast his eye under it; and, finally, bringing it down face to face with another of my plates, lifted that up by mere cohesive attraction. He said nothing to me, but, calling in his head workman, he cried, "Here, Joe, is the way I want them plates finished!" The truth was, I had, at once, greatly surpassed the finisher at his own business, by mere nicety of eye and determination of spirit. From that moment my employer took me into his confidence. He really seemed to love me. He soon gave me the superintendence of all his machinery; I lived in his family, and I felt my future secure. There was a machine for cutting clock-wheels in the shop, which, though very valuable, seemed to me capable of being much simplified and improved. The chief hands, jealous of my favor with the boss, laughed at my suggestions of improvement in a machine which had come all the way from Connecti-

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cut, where "the foreman guessed they knew something about clocks." There was an old silver bull's-eye watch hanging in the shop—too poor to steal—which had, however, excited my cupidity. I told the master that, if he would give me that watch, I would undertake to make a new machine—much simpler and more efficient than the old one. He agreed; and, after ten days' labor, I so simplified and improved the plan, that my new machine would cut twice as many wheels in a day, and cut them twice as well. This established my reputation with him and the workmen. The old watch has ticked all my children into existence, and three of them out of this world. It still hangs at the head of my bed."

It was about this time that the artist recollects visiting the Museum in Cincinnati, where he noticed particularly an elephant's tusk broken and held together by iron hoops; and a plaster cast of Houdon's "Washington," the first bust he had ever seen. "It excited my curiosity strangely," he says, "and I wondered how it was made." There happening then to be in the city a German sculptor engaged on a bust of General Jackson, Powers sought his acquaintance, and learned from him the elements of his art. Being an apt pupil, for nature was directing his hand, he at once turned the information he received to account, by modelling with steady persistence, in bees' wax, the head of the little daughter of a gentleman of the city, Mr. John P. Foote. When it was completed, by careful fidelity in copying the exact features, he found he had obtained an excellent likeness in expression. Soon after, the famous Mrs. Trollope made her appearance at Cincinnati, on her American tour, accompanied by the clever French artist, Hervieu, who illustrated a number of her works. By agreement, Powers modelled a bust of this sketcher in exchange for a portrait of himself by the painter. These, however, were but first attempts. It was not till some time after that a peculiar opportunity presented itself to advance his employment as a bust maker. It would be injustice to the reader to relate it in other than the artist's own words, as taken down by Dr. Bellows.

"A Frenchman from New Orleans had opened a museum in Cincinnati, in which he found his fine specimens of natural history less attractive than some other more questionable objects. Among these were certain wax figures. He had, however, one lot which had been badly broken in transportation, and he had been advised to apply to me to restore them. I went to the room, and found Lorenzo Dow, John Quincy Adams, Miss Temple, and Charlotte Corday, with sundry other people's images, in a very promiscuous condition—some with arms, and some with noses, and some without either. We concluded that something entirely new, to be made from the old materials, was easier than any repairs; and I proposed to take Lorenzo Dow's head home, and convert him into the King of the Cannibal Islands. The Frenchman was meanwhile to make his body—"fit body to fit head." I took the head home, and, thrusting my hand into the hollow, bulged out the

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lanky cheeks, put two alligator's tusks into the place of the eye-teeth, and soon finished my part of the work. A day or two after, I was horrified to see large placards upon the city-walls, announcing the arrival of a great curiosity, the actual embalmed body of a South-Sea man-eater, secured at immense expense, etc. I told my employer that his audience would certainly tear down his museum, when they came to find out how badly they were sold, and I resolved myself not to go near the place. But a few nights showed the public to be very easily pleased. The figure drew immensely, and I was soon, with my old employer's full consent, installed as inventor, wax-figure maker, and general mechanical contriver in the Museum. One of the first things I undertook, in company with Hervieu, was a representation of the infernal regions after Dante's description. Behind a grating I made certain dark grottoes, full of stalactites and stalagmites, with shadowy ghosts and pitchforked figures, all calculated to work on the easily-excited imaginations of a Western audience, as the West then was. I found it very popular and attractive; but occasionally some countryman would suggest to his fellow-spectator that a little motion in the figures would add much to the reality of the show. After much reflection, I concluded to go in among the figures dressed like the Evil One, in a dark robe, with a death's-head and cross-bones wrought upon it, and with a lobster's claw for a nose. I had bought and fixed up an old electrical machine, and connected it with a wire, so that, from a wand in my hand, I could discharge quite a serious shock upon anybody venturing too near the grating. The plan worked admirably, and excited great interest; but I found acting the part of wax-figure two hours every evening in the cold no sinecure, and was put to my wits to devise a figure that could be moved by strings, and which would fill my place. I succeeded so well, that it ended in my inventing a whole series of automata, for which the old wax-figures furnished the materials, in part, and which became so popular and so rewarding, that I was kept seven years at the business, my employer promising me, from time to time, an interest in the business, which he quite forgot to fulfil. When, at last, I found out the vanity of my expectations, I left him. He knew I kept no accounts; but he did not know that I reported all the money he gave me to my wife, who did keep our accounts. He tried to cheat me; but I was able to baffle him through her prudence and method. For I had married in this interval, and had a wife and children to support."

From these incongruous pursuits, the artist, for such he was really becoming, was relieved by the generous appreciation of the wealthy resident and benefactor of Cincinnati, Mr. Nicholas Longworth. This fine-hearted gentleman voluntarily came to the artist and made him three propositions, to buy out the museum and establish him in it; send him to Europe at his expense to study his art as a sculptor; or to forward his interests at the national capital, where he might

find employment in making busts of the great men of the country. Powers accepted the last, and, in 1835, leaving his family at Cincinnati, took up, for a time, his residence at Washington, where he was speedily engaged upon the bust of President Jackson; and, among other distinguished sitters, had John Quincy Adams, Calhoun, Chief-Justice Marshall, Levi Woodbury, and Martin Van Buren. An anecdote is related of his bust of Jackson, one of his earliest and most striking works, which exhibits thus early the leading characteristics of the author's power—that pursuit of the real which has given to his great portrait busts the force and authority of a living presence. "After I had finished it," says he, "Mr. Edward Everett brought Baron Krudener, minister from Prussia, to see it. The baron had a great reputation as a critic of art. He looked at the bust deliberately, and said: "You have got the general completely: his head, his face, his courage, his firmness, his identical self; and yet it will not do! You have also got all his wrinkles, all his age and decay. You forget that he is President of the United States, and the idol of the people. You should have given him a dignity and elegance he does not possess. You should have employed your *art*, sir, and not merely your *nature*." I did not dare, in my humility and reverence for these two great men, to say what I wanted to in reply; to tell the baron (for Mr. Everett was silent) that my "art" consisted in concealing art, and that my "nature" was the highest art I knew or could conceive of. I was content that the "truth" of my work had been so fully acknowledged, and the baron only confirmed my resolution to make truth my model and guide in all my future undertakings. I wrote Mr. Everett, many years after, reminding him of this interview, and also remarking on his silence at the time. He wrote me frankly that his silence was caused by his consciousness of a very poor right to speak on such a subject, but that he had often pondered it since, and had come to the deliberate conclusion that the baron was wrong in his criticism and counsel. If I have since done any thing in my art (said Powers), it is due to my steady resistance to all attempts to drive me from my love and pursuit of the truth.

The eminent ability displayed by Mr. Powers in these early works at Washington gained for him the admiration of the distinguished South Carolina statesman, Senator William C. Preston, who, by his representations, induced his brother at Columbia, though he had never seen the artist, to tender to him the means of going abroad, authorizing him to draw annually for a thousand dollars for several years. This munificent offer was accepted. In 1837, Mr. Powers reached Italy, and took up his residence in Florence, where, with remarkable local tenacity, he maintained his studio, to the end, accomplishing from year to year the series of his noble busts and statues which have gained him the admiration of appreciators of art throughout the world. During thirty years' residence in Florence, he visited Rome but twice, and then only for a short time on each occasion. After execut-

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ing in marble the busts of Jackson and others, which he had modelled in Washington, he turned his attention to works of invention, and produced his first ideal statue, a representation of Eve, a matronly figure, marked by a fulness and certain robustness, without any sacrifice of beauty or grace, pensive in expression, as she is imagined in a first moment of consciousness after the fall, a sentiment indicated by the slightly inclined countenance and the attitude of the arm and hand holding the apple. Before the model of this work was completed, as we are told in one of the notices of the sculptor, he was visited in his studio by the eminent Thorwaldsen, who happened then to be passing through Florence. "He admired the busts of the artist. The statue of 'Eve' excited his admiration. Powers could not suppress his apprehensions, and began to offer an apology, by stating that it was his first statue. The noble old sculptor stopped him, and rendered an apology useless by the remark, 'Any man might be proud of it as his last.'"*

"Eve" was speedily followed by the production of "The Greek Slave," the best known and most popularly successful of the sculptor's works. It was first brought to the notice of the world in the great London Crystal Palace Exhibition of 1851, where its success marks an era in American art. It has since been reproduced by the artist in no less than six copies, with slight variations of the accessories; and has been rendered familiar to the public by various exhibitions and in numerous engravings and small models in different materials. Like the "Eve," it is relieved from all unrefined, sensuous expression, by an air of sentiment, the design involving a consciousness of shame at the exposure in the slave-market. The other chief ideal works of the artist, are his "Penseroso," a realization of the lines of Milton:

> "And looks commercing with the skies,
> Thy rapt soul sitting in thine eyes;
> There held in holy passion still
> Forget thyself to marble."

The "Proserpine," a bust, the conception of female beauty in repose;—the "Fisher Boy," who listens, as he holds a shell to his ear, to the imaginative sounds within it;—the national "California" and "America;" while not less among his masterpieces, are his portrait busts of eminent American statesmen, and his statues of Washington, Calhoun, and Webster.

Powers continued to reside in Italy, for the sake of the advantage to his art; but he remained in heart a true American, never ceasing to interest himself in the welfare of his country. So his life wore on with great regularity in his studio till he was visited by a wasting bronchial complaint, which, after about a year's continuance, terminated his life at Florence on the 27th of June, 1873.

* The "Illustrated Magazine of Art," vol. 3, p. 209.

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LOUIS AGASSIZ.

LOUIS JOHN RODOLPH AGASSIZ, one of the most distinguished naturalists and scientific explorers of the present day, was born in the parish of Mottier, between the lake of Neufchâtel and the lake of Morat, in Switzerland, on the 28th of May, 1807. Of Huguenot race his father was a village pastor, as for six generations in lineal descent his ancestors had been before him. The pastor's wife, a woman of rare worth and intelligence was the daughter of a Swiss physician.

At the age of eleven, Louis entered the gymnasium of Bienne, whence he was removed, in 1822, as a reward for his attainments in his scientific studies, to the Academy of Lausanne. Two years later he engaged in the study of medicine at the school at Zurich, and subsequently pursued the scientific and philosophical courses at the Universities of Heidelberg and Munich, receiving his degree as doctor of medicine at the latter. The bent of his mind was already shown at these latter institutions, in his devotion to the study of botany and comparative anatomy.

In 1828, at the age of twenty-one, Agassiz began his public career as a naturalist by the description of two new fishes in the "Isis" and "Linnæa," two foreign periodicals occupied with natural history. The following year he was selected to assist the eminent German naturalist, Von Martius, in his report of the scientific results of his expedition to Brazil, undertaken under the auspices of the Austrian and Bavarian governments. The portion of the work entrusted to his charge, was the preparation of an account of the genera and species of the fish collected by the naturalist Von Spix in the expedition. The successful accomplishment of this work gave him reputation as an ichthyologist. His labors were noticed with approval, and brought before a Berlin meeting of German naturalists by the eminent transcendental anatomist, Oken. Encouraged by this success he pursued his ichthyological studies with great perseverance, recording the results from time to time in the natural history publications of the day. His labors also secured him the friendship of Humboldt and Cuvier in a visit to Paris. where he was enabled to pursue his researches by the friendly pecuniary assistance of a clergyman and friend of his father, Mr. Christinat.

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L. Agassiz

Likeness from an approved photograph from life.

Johnson, Fry & Co. Publishers, New York

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In 1832, he was appointed Professor of Zoology at Neufchâtel. In 1834, he published a paper on the "Fossil Fish of Scotland," in the "Transactions of the British Association for the Advancement of Science," and others subsequently on the classification of fossil fishes in various foreign journals. He devoted seven years to this subject, completing the publication of his great work on "Fossil Fishes," in five volumes in 1844. Associated with these studies and results, was the preparation of his important work on Star-Fishes, or Echinodermata, published in parts from 1837 to 1842, under the title "Monographes d'Echinodermes Vivans et Fossiles." He had also, during this period, completed another leading work, a "Natural History of the Fresh-water Fishes of Europe," which was published in 1839.

"The researches of Agassiz upon fossil animals," says a writer in the "English Cyclopædia," "would naturally draw his attention to the circumstances by which they have been placed in their present position. The geologist has been developed as the result of natural history studies. Surrounded by the ice-covered mountains of Switzerland, his mind was naturally led to the study of the phenomena which they presented. The moving glaciers and their resulting moraines, furnished him with facts which seemed to supply the theory of a large number of phenomena in the past history of the world. He saw in other parts of the world, whence glaciers have long since retired, proofs of their existence in the parallel roads and terraces, at the basis of hills and mountains, and in the scratched, polished and striated surface of rocks. Although this theory has been applied much more extensively than is consistent with all the facts of particular cases by his disciples, there is no question in the minds of the most competent geologists of the present day, that Agassiz has, by his researches on this subject, pointed out the cause of a large series of geological phenomena. His papers on this subject are numerous, and will be found in the 'Transactions of the British Association' for 1840, in the 3rd volume of the 'Proceedings of the Geological Society,' in the 18th volume of the 'Philosophical Magazine,' third series; and in the 6th volume of the 'Annals and Magazine of Natural History.'"

In 1846, Agassiz came to the United States to continue his explorations and to fulfil an engagement to deliver a course of Lectures on the Animal Kingdom before the Lowell Institute at Boston. The lectures excited much interest and were followed in successive seasons by three other courses on Natural History before the same institution. While these were in progress he had, at the close of 1847, accepted the appointment of Professor of Zoology and Botany in the scientific school founded by Mr. Abbott Lawrence, in connexion with Harvard University at Cambridge. In the following year he was engaged, with some of his pupils, in a scientific exploration of the shores of Lake Superior, the results of which were published in a volume written by Mr. Elliott Cabot and others, entitled "Lake Superior." In conjunction with Dr. A. A. Gould, of

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Boston, Professor Agassiz published in the same year a work on "The Principles of Zoology." Devoting himself to an assiduous practical study of the natural history of the country, he has visited its most important portions in the Atlantic and Gulf States, the valley of the Mississippi, and the regions of the Rocky Mountains. In 1850, he spent a winter upon the reefs of Florida, in the service of the United States Coast Survey; and subsequently, during the winter 1852–53, was Professor of Comparative Anatomy, in the Medical College of Charleston, S. C., which afforded him the opportunity of making other scientific researches in the southern region and seaboard. The results of his investigations in these various journeys have been given to the world in a series of volumes in quarto entitled "Contributions to the Natural History of the United States," a work for which an extraordinary popular subscription was obtained.

In the Summer of 1865, Professor Agassiz extended his American researches to the Southern Continent, in an expedition at the head of a chosen party of assistants, in an exploration of Brazil, where he devoted eighteen months to a thorough survey of the valley of the Amazon and other portions of the country. An account of this tour, in a volume entitled "A Journey to Brazil," from the pen of Mrs. Agassiz, a devoted companion to her husband in his scientific studies, was published in 1857. He subsequently has been engaged in a like exhaustive study of the regions of the United States bordering on the Pacific; and, in 1872, a voyage of scientific observation on the western shores of South America. In these expeditions he is accompanied by a corps of pupils devoted to natural history, and vast materials are gathered by him, to be added to the collections of animals, plants, and fossils, of which he has undertaken the classification and preservation, as curator of the Museum of Comparative Zoology established in connection with his Professorship at Cambridge.

While pursuing his career of original study at Cambridge and giving to the public the result of his observations in his series of philosophical lectures before the Museum of Comparative Zoology, involving original and elaborate *constructions* of animal life, the sphere of his investigations was enlarged in the summer of 1873 by the gift by Mr. John Anderson, a gentleman of Massachusetts, of Penikese Island, off the coast of New England. This piece of land, valued at one hundred thousand dollars, was presented to him for the establishment of a school of Investigation in Natural History, with an additional gift in money of fifty thousand dollars to carry out the design. In the prosecution of this liberal plan, Prof. Agassiz became at once engaged in the effective organization of the school or college, endeavoring to "extend the range of its usefulness in the application of science to the practical art of modern civilization" his object being particularly "to combine physical and chemical experiment with the instruction and work of research to be carried on upon the island—physiological experiments

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being at the very foundation of the exhaustive study of zoology." *

Professor Agassiz has received the most distinguished attentions from the French Academy of Sciences and other numerous scientific associations of Europe. On the death of the eminent Professor Edward Forbes, in 1854, he was invited to succeed to his chair of Natural History in the University of Edinburgh, but declined the offer in favor of his adopted home, and the field of some of his most distinguished researches in America.

The amiable and attractive personal character of Professor Agassiz has added greatly to his opportunities in advancing the interests of science. "He is," says the accomplished critic, Mr. Whipple, in the course of an able review of his "Essay on Classification" in the first volume of the Contributions to the Natural History of North America, "not merely a scientific thinker: he is a scientific force; and no small portion of the immense influence he exerts is due to the energy, intensity and geniality which distinguish the nature of the man. In personal intercourse he inspires as well as informs, communicates not only knowledge, but the love of knowledge, and makes for the time everything appear of small account in comparison with the subject which has possession of his soul. To hear him speak on his favorite themes is to become inflamed with his enthusiasm. He is at once one of the most dominating and one of the most sympathetic of men, having the qualities of leader and companion combined in singular harmony. People follow him, work for him, contribute money for his objects, not only from the love inspired by his good-fellowship, but from the compulsion exercised by his force. Divorced from his congeniality, his energy would make him disliked as a dictator; divorced from his energy, his geniality would be barren of practical effects. The good-will he inspires in others quickens their active faculties as well as their benevolent feelings. They feel that, magnetized by the man, they must do something for the science impersonated in the man,—that there is no way of enjoying his companionship without catching the contagion of his spirit. He consequently wields, through his social qualities, a wider personal influence over a wider variety of persons than any other scientific man of his time. At his genial instigation, laborers delve and dive, students toil for specimens, merchants open their purses, legislatures pass appropriation bills."

In the midst of this active career of usefulness, after a summer of unusual exertion in the establishment of his School of Natural History, Professor Agassiz, who had already suffered some symptoms of failing health, was, in the beginning of December, 1873, suddenly stricken down by an attack of paralysis, and, after a few days of lingering illness, on the night of the 14th expired at his residence in Cambridge, Mass. His death was attended by the profoundest regret and the noblest tributes to his memory in America, and by the friends of science throughout the civilized world.

* Letter of Prof. Agassiz to the "New York Daily Tribune," June 14, 1873.

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FLORENCE NIGHTINGALE.

FLORENCE NIGHTINGALE was born in 1820, in the city of Florence, Italy, whence it is said she derived her christian name. Her father, William Edward Nightingale, of Lea Hurst, Derbyshire, England, was descended from an ancient Yorkshire family named Shore, the name which he bore till about the year 1815, when, in compliance with the wishes of an uncle by the mother's side, he adopted the name of Nightingale. He was married in 1818 to a daughter of William Smith, the eminent philanthropic member of Parliament for Norwich. Florence, the younger of the two daughters from this union, according to the account in the "English Cyclopædia," "appears to have been instructed at home; where, besides the usual accomplishments, she acquired a knowledge of the German and other modern languages, which, during her travels on the Continent, to examine the hospitals and asylums for the poor and aged, were of essential service. Besides attaining proficiency in the classics and mathematics, with a general knowledge of the sciences, her musical attainments are highly spoken of. In early childhood, a marked sympathy with every kind of affliction declared itself in her; and it was fostered both by the encouragement of her friends, and the means for its exercise which her father's fortune placed at her disposal. From the first, her benevolence took the aspect of method, being quiet, thoughtful, and serious; she seemed from natural instinct to have adopted her own vocation. Her reading mainly consisted of the writings of pious Christians of different countries and ages, who have had their missions of charity. From Lea Hurst, where much of her early life was spent, she visited the schools and hospitals of the neighborhood; and when time had lent its impulse to this benevolence, she longed to extend its sphere by exploring the great hospitals of England. With this view, she was taken to the metropolis, where she examined with rigid care the several systems of treatment pursued in the hospitals, reformatory institutions, and workhouses. She took great pains in observing the nursing of patients in the Middlesex hospital, whence afterwards she selected some of the nurses who accompanied her to the East. After this, she gathered new experience by in-

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Florence Nightingale

From the original painting by Chappel in the possession of the publishers.

Johnson Fry & Co. Publishers, New York.

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specting the principal hospitals in the country towns. During this protracted course of study, the observation which most frequently recurred to her, was the want of competent nurses and a school for the training of them. At length she learned that such a training school as she desired, though not to be met with in the United Kingdom, existed in Germany."

This was the institution at Kaiserswerth, near Dusseldorf, on the Rhine, founded by Pastor Fliedner, for the practical training of deaconesses, or visiting nurses, who go out to visit the sick and poor, one of a cluster of charitable establishments at this spot which had rapidly grown from a very humble beginning. The story of Fliedner's life is told in the popular work of John De Liefde, chiefly relating to the charitable institutions of Germany, entitled "The Romance of Charity." He was, in 1822, a poor young Protestant clergyman of the Prussian church, in charge of a scanty flock, depending for their subsistence upon employment in a neighboring manufactory. The failure of the factory dispersed part of the congregation, and left the rest in utter want. The church was in debt, and by a pastor of less resolution than Fliedner, would have been abandoned in despair. In this extremity, he resolved to make a tour of the province, with the hope of collecting money to carry on the enterprize, "On this journey, he made the acquaintance of the leading men in the Church, and especially in the sphere of Christian philanthropy. Their conversation enabled him to cast a glance into the depths of misery which prevailed among the lower classes, in the prisons and in the hospitals. He returned home to his flock with the glad intelligence that he was able to pay their most urgent debts. But fresh difficulties arose. It was quite absurd to expect that these poor people would be able to meet the annual expenditure of their church and school; so Fliedner resolved to try to collect an endowment for both, and this time directed his steps to Holland and Great Britain. He set out on his travels in 1823, and he obtained money in abundance; but he carried back with him a greater treasure in a thorough knowledge of the chief philanthropic and charitable institutions of the two countries." With this experience, looking beyond the immediate limits of his parochial church, he turned his attention to the condition of the inmates of the neighboring prison at Dusseldorf; obtained permission to preach to them, and procured a society of prison reform to act for their welfare. A second visit to Holland followed in 1827, and another to England and Scotland in 1832, in which he made the acquaintance of Mrs. Fry, whose beneficent labors at Newgate, undertaken many years before, were now bearing fruit throughout the kingdom, and of Chalmers, who, was also to illustrate in his career the practical work of Christianity in the improvement of the condition of the poor. Fliedner was now ready to organize institutions of his own which should be an example to Germany and the rest of Europe. He began with an asylum for discharged female convicts. The little garden house of his family was given up for the purpose. This soon

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proving too small, a large place was procured, and the garden house became a school for the poor children of the factory where they were at first taught knitting, and this soon grew into a fully equipped infant school. A hospital was his next undertaking, and this demanded nurses, which were poorly supplied. To meet this new want, an institution for training nurses was organized, and thus the famous deaconess-house at Kaiserswerth was established, which has its active correspondence and agents, and a brood of like institutions which it has inspired, throughout the world. Nor was this all that was effected by the efforts of Fliedner. An institution for insane women; a home of rest for aged deaconesses who have accomplished their mission; another, a rural retreat for those who require relaxation in the midst of their labors, are among the numerous buildings gathered together in this great Christian enterprize.

It was at the deaconess-house at Kaiserswerth, that Miss Nightingale received the education by which she became especially qualified for her future personal exertions in the care of the sick, and her equally important work of hospital organization. She entered Fliedner's institution in 1849, as a voluntary deaconess, and for six months was engaged under the direction of the founder, in a regular course of training in the care and treatment of medical and surgical cases. She then visited a number of other hospitals and asylums for the poor in Germany, France, and Italy, but more particularly those founded on the parent house at Kaiserswerth, for the training of Protestant nurses and teachers. Among the many sisters of charity she met with in her progress, was a German lady, the Baroness Rantzau, director of a royal benevolent institution at Berlin. Like herself, the baroness had adopted the vocation of voluntary nurse, and had qualified at Kaiserswerth. After her return to England, Miss Nightingale remained some months at Lea Hurst, to recruit her health. Her next service was the direction of the Sanatorium for Invalid Ladies, in Upper Harley-street, London, where she remained from August, 1853, to October, 1854, when the progress of the war in the Crimea, and the distress of the British army had roused the sympathy of the nation. The question having been strongly urged, with a pointed reference to the assistance rendered by the Sisters of Charity in the French camp, "Are there no women in Protestant England to go forth?"—Mr. Sidney Herbert, secretary of war, determined to send out to the East a staff of voluntary nurses; and it was in consequence of his urgent request, that Miss Nightingale, who endeavored to shun notice and fame, was induced to take upon herself the onerous duty of its superintendence. Having reached Constantinople a day or two before the battle of Inkermann, November 5th, 1854, accompanied by her friends and coadjutors, Mr. and Mrs. Bracebridge, and forty-two competent nurses, some of them ladies of rank and fortune, she took up her quarters in the great barrack hospital at Scutari. The battle of Inkermann sent down to that hospital, in a single

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day, upwards of six hundred wounded soldiers; and so great was the rapidity with which sickness spread through the camp, that the number of patients at Scutari rose in two months, from September 30th, to November 30th, from five hundred to three thousand, and on the 10th of January, 1855, nearly ten thousand sick men were scattered over the various hospitals on the Bosphorus.

The services of Miss Nightingale, under extraordinary demands like these, were of the most exacting nature. How she met the occasion, has been recorded by Russell, the celebrated war correspondent of the London "Times," in his letters from the camp to that journal. "Wherever there is disease in its most contagious form," he wrote, early in 1855, "and the hand of the spoiler distressingly nigh, there is that incomparable woman sure to be seen. Her benignant presence is an influence for good comfort, even amid the struggles of expiring nature. She is a 'ministering angel,' without any exaggeration, in these hospitals, and as her slender form glides quietly along each corridor, every poor fellow's face softens with gratitude at the sight of her. When all the medical officers have retired for the night, and silence and darkness have settled down upon those miles of prostrate sick, she may be observed alone, with a little lamp in her hand, making her solitary rounds."

Miss Nightingale remained nearly two years in the East, in assiduous devotion to the great work of her life, interrupted only by a severe attack of hospital fever, contracted while she was engaged in superintending the hospital service at the camp at Balaclava, in May, 1855, on her recovery from which, having rejected the advice of her friends to return to England for her health, she immediately resumed her duties in the care of the wounded soldiers of the army. When the war was ended, she returned, in September, 1856, to her father's seat at Lea Hurst. In acknowledgement of her services to the nation at the seat of war in the East, she was presented by Queen Victoria with a valuable jewel, said to have been designed by Prince Albert.

A pamphlet written by Miss Nightingale, was published in 1850, for the benefit of the establishment for invalid ladies in Upper Harley-street, giving an account of the Institution for the Practical Training of Deaconesses, which she had attended at Kaiserswerth on the Rhine. Ten years afterward, in 1860, appeared a volume from her pen, of a highly suggestive and useful character, entitled "Notes on Nursing: What it is, and what it is not."

The treatment suggested may often be called simply natural, founded on the sense of man's physical relations in the world, with no invocation of the science of medicine. Thus, in the first chapter of the book, that on "Ventilation and Warming," the proposition is laid down: "The very first canon of nursing, the first and the last thing upon which a nurse's attention must be fixed, the first essential to a patient, without which all the rest you can do for him is as nothing, with which I had almost said, you may leave all the rest alone,

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is this: To keep the air he breathes as pure as the external air, without chilling him." Among other striking illustrations of this subject, are the remarks on night air: "Another extraordinary fallacy is the dread of night air. What air can we breathe at night but night air? The choice is between pure night air from without, and foul night air from within. Most people prefer the latter. An unaccountable choice. What will they say if it is proved to be true, that fully one-half of all the disease we suffer from, is occasioned by people sleeping with their windows shut? An open window most nights in the year can never hurt any one. In great cities, night air is often the best and purest air to be had in the twenty-four hours. One of our highest medical authorities on consumption and climate, has told me that the air in London is never so good as after ten o'clock at night." The manner of the book, it may be added, is as good as its matter; feminine in its thoughtful, sympathetic insight, manly in its straightforward, energetic utterance.

We cannot better close this notice of a lady whose practical beneficence is benefiting the world, than in the lines addressed to her by the poet Edwin Arnold:

"If on this verse of mine
Those eyes shall ever shine,
Whereto sore-wounded men have looked for life,
Think not that for a rhyme,
Nor yet to fit the time,
I name thy name,—true victress in this strife!
But let it serve to say
That, when we kneel to pray,
Prayers rise for thee thine ear shall never know;
And that thy gallant deed,
For God, and for our need,
Is in all hearts, as deep as love can go.

'Tis good that thy name springs
From two of Earth's fair things,—
A stately city and a soft-voiced bird;
'Tis well that in all homes,
When thy sweet story comes,
And brave eyes fill—that pleasant sounds be heard.
Oh voice! in night of fear,
As night's bird, soft to hear,
Oh great heart! raised like city on a hill;
Oh watcher! worn and pale
Good Florence Nightingale,
Thanks, loving thanks, for thy large work and will!
England is glad of thee,—
Christ for thy charity,
Take thee to joy when hand and heart are still."

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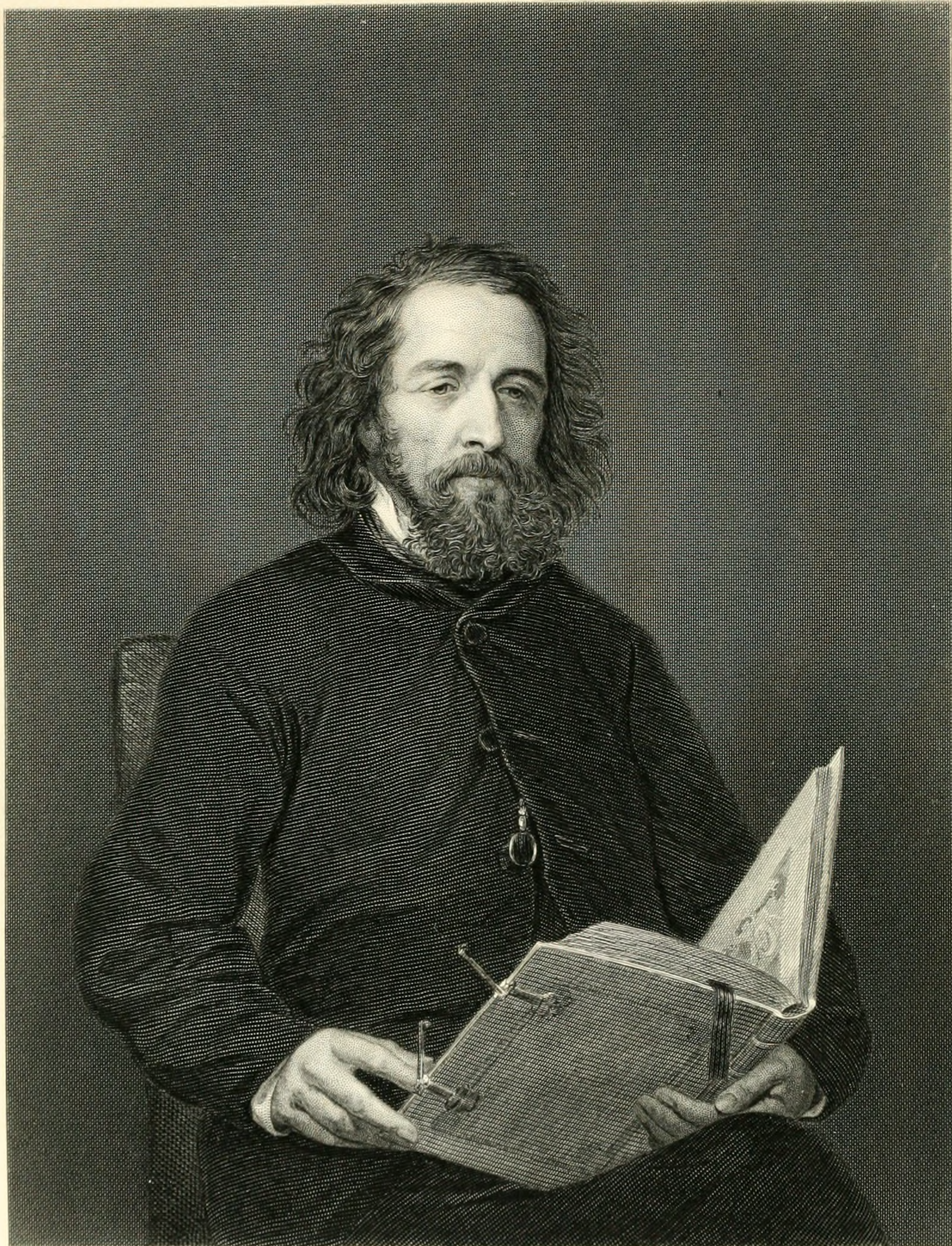

Painted by | Alonzo Chappel

A Tennyson

Likeness from a painting approved by the author.

Johnson, Wilson & Co. Publishers, New York.

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ALFRED TENNYSON.

THIS English author, the foremost of his generation in the long line of eminent national poets, was born at Somerby, a small parish in Leicestershire, of which his father, the Rev. Dr. George Clayton Tennyson, was rector, in the year 1809. His mother was Elizabeth, daughter of the Rev. Stephen Fytche. The paternal grandfather of the poet, George Tennyson, of Bayon's Manor and Usselby Hall, Lincolnshire, was possessed of large estates by inheritance and marriage, which, on his death in 1835, became the possession of his second son, the Right Hon Charles Tennyson D'Eyncourt, who assumed this addition to the family name in compliance with the will of his father, "to commemorate his descent from the ancient and noble family of D'Eyncourt, Barons D'Eyncourt of Blenkney, etc." The ancestry of the poet may thus be traced to the D'Eyncourts of the Norman times, and in various alliances with the most distinguished Norman, Saxon and modern English families, a pedigree, doubtless, not without its influence in the formation of his character and genius.

The Rev. Dr. Tennyson, the father of the poet, is spoken of by William Howitt, in his "Homes and Haunts of the Most Eminent British Poets," as "a man of very various talents—something of a poet, a painter, an architect, and a musician, as well as a considerable linguist and mathematician." He was thus abundantly able to conduct his son's education, which, after a year or so at the grammar school of Louth, in his native county, was continued at home at the parsonage till his entrance at Trinity College, Cambridge, at about the age of nineteen. His two elder brothers, Frederick and Charles, both possessed of poetical talent, were undergraduates with him in the University course. The rectory at Somerby had been quite a nest of poets. "We have heard," says the biographer of Tennyson, in the "English Cyclopædia," "the writing of tales and verses was the amusement of all the children from the time that they could use a pen." In 1827, when Alfred was at the age of eighteen, there appeared anonymously at Louth, in Lincolnshire, a small volume, entitled "Poems by two Brothers," the work of Alfred and Charles. This was the future laureate's first appearance in print. As

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the respective authorship of the poems is not indicated in the book, the critics have not been able to pronounce positively upon any evidences of the peculiar genius of Alfred exhibited in the volume; but the writer of the critical notes in the curious "Tennysoniana" has detected in passages certain resemblances to the later expressions of the poet, which, with the general character of this very early production, show that even in his boyhood his style was being formed, with no little of that sensibility and refinement in thought and expression by which his productions have since and always been so eminently distinguished.

In 1828, Frederick Tennyson, the oldest son of the family, obtained at Cambridge the medal for a Greek poem, recited at the Commencement of that year; and, in the following year, Alfred obtained the Chancellor's gold medal for an English poem, in blank verse, on "Timbuctoo," the geographical discoveries in Africa affording then, as they do now again in 1873, a popular topic of interest. The poem was published, and must have puzzled any of its readers who looked for real description of the place. The poet, escaping at once from the difficulties of the theme, had taken refuge in a purely visionary, imaginative picture, vague and undefined, of the glories of old romance. In the phrase of ancient Pistol, he sang of "Africa and golden joys," of the struggles of fancy, and "the bounding element" of thought to grasp the spirit of the past flitting through the gorgeous palaces of a superhuman architecture. A critic in the *Atheneum*, supposed to be either John Sterling or Frederic Maurice, hailed the ode as evidence of a genuine poet, who had appeared in a form in which he might least have been looked for. "These productions (the College prize poems) have often been ingenious and elegant, but we have never before seen one of them which indicated, like the little work before us, really first-rate poetical genius, and which would have done honor to any man that ever wrote."

In 1830, Alfred Tennyson published the first volume to which his name was attached, "Poems, chiefly Lyrical," a collection of some fifty compositions, instinct with fancy and feeling, "most musical, most melancholy:" melodies touching "Claribel," "Lilian," "Isabel," "Adeline," shadowy ideals of grace and beauty with sundry odes, poet's soul-questionings, as the "Supposed Confessions of a Second-rate Sensitive Mind not in Unity with Itself," omitted in later editions of the author's works; and not a few of his best known compositions, as "Marianna of the Moated Grange," the ballad of "Oriana," and the "Recollections of the Arabian Nights." At about the same time with the production of this volume, Charles Tennyson published a little collection of "Sonnets and Fugitive Pieces." The two books were reviewed by Leigh Hunt, in a series of four articles, in his periodical, "The Tatler." "We have great pleasure in stating," he says, "that we have seen no such poetical writing since the last volume of Mr. Keats; and that the authors, who are both young men, we believe, at college, may take their stand at once among the first poets of

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the day. How seldom is it, that the readers of the great poets, of Chaucer, Spenser, etc., meet with a fresh book, into which they no sooner enter, than they feel as if they were in a new district of their old territory, and turn the first leaf as if they closed the portal behind them, and were left alone with nature and a new friend. Here are two, both genuine, both on the borders of the great country, both in full receipt of its airs, and odors and visions, and most human voices, and all the congenial helps of a common soil and climate; and both possessing trees of their own that promise to be mighty, and haunted with the sound of young angelic wings." In conclusion, the critic gives his verdict between the two poets in favor of Charles, on the ground mainly that "he seems less disposed to tie himself down to conventional notions." Charles was then about to take holy orders, and a few years after became vicar of Grasby in his native county; and, about that time, in consequence of his succeeding to a family property, took the name of Turner. Frederick published nothing with his name till 1854, when his volume of poems entitled "Days and Hours" appeared; so that after 1830 Alfred Tennyson was virtually left alone to represent the poetic genius of the family.

His second volume, simply entitled "Poems by Alfred Tennyson," appeared from the press of Moxon, in 1833, a small volume of about a hundred and fifty pages, containing, among other noticeable productions, "The Lady of Shalott," the first of the poems inspired by the legends of the Arthurian romance; that favorite, the pathetic "May Queen;" "Œnone," instinct with the classic spirit; and that beautiful English idyll, a tale of love and marriage affection so lightly yet feelingly touched, "The Miller's Daughter," disclosing a new vein of household poetry, to be worked by the author with great effect in future compositions. The next ten years produced a great development of these poetic germs in the new poems of the two volumes published in 1842, of which it is sufficient to mention simply the names of a few of the more prominent as the "Morte d'Arthur," and "Sir Galahad," with the fragment of "Sir Launcelot and Queen Guinevere," giving farther promise of the Epic series since accomplished by the poet; the "Gardener's Daughter" and "Dora" in the purest idyllic spirit; the "St. Simeon Stylites" and "Godiva," inspired by a wonderful force of imagination and poetic comprehension of individual life; and "Locksley Hall," remarkable alike by its brilliant versification and its sympathy with the world's progress in its entrance upon the problem of human life and society at the present day. This "dash of metaphysics," which Burke claimed to be an ingredient in every great mind, was further marked in the "Two Voices" a solution of the question of belief and unbelief in favor of cheerful hope and joy and the final good.

Five years after these volumes were published, "The Princess, a Medley," in which the "woman question" of the time was presented in an atmosphere of elegance and refinement as far removed as possible from the every-

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day associations of the subject. The tale is interspersed with exquisite songs, and enlivened by airy descriptions and the most felicitous illustrations, in the very perfection of a social philosophical discussion. Seldom have vulgar fallacies been penetrated and put to flight by such finely tempered weapons. The fanciful humor of the piece is in the happiest possible mood and the result picturesquely arrived at, in the interdependent relations of the sexes, united yet distinct, most consonant to reason and philosophy.

The "Princess" was followed, in 1850, by the collection of poems entitled, "In Memoriam," which has been pronounced "the richest oblation ever offered by the affection of friendship at the tomb of the departed." The occasion which gave rise to its production was the death in 1833, of the author's early college companion and intimate friend, Arthur Henry Hallam, the son of the historian, a young man of rare moral qualities, and of the brightest intellectual promise.

"Maud," a tale of disappointed affection, of a wild and passionate nature, appeared in 1855, and with it, in the same volume, that charming idyll, "The Brook." After this the author appears to have devoted his poetic studies, mainly, to the Arthurian romance of which he had given to the public in previous collections the "Morte d'Arthur," and other compositions based on the legends, as we have already mentioned. The success of this effort and his strong predilection for a subject which had strongly tempted the imagination of Milton, led him to further achievements in the promise which he had thus already made his own, and in which he has thus far had no successful competitor. In the "Idylls of the King," published in 1859, Tennyson realised the hope and expectation of the public that he would pursue the national mythical theme of King Arthur and the Knights of the Round Table. Though an old, it was comparatively a novel subject, the legends being known to but few readers in their acquaintance with the early chroniclers and the compilation by Sir Thomas Malory, originally printed in 1634. In the "Idylls," it is but justice to Tennyson to say that he has re-created the whole, gathering about King Arthur, his ideal of perfect Knighthood, and investing the adventures of his followers with many rare graces of his own invention—his object, as interpreted by his friend and critic, Mr. Knollys, being, in the character of King Arthur, to set forth "the King within us, our highest nature, by whatsoever name it may be called—conscience, spirit, the moral soul, the religious sense, the noble resolve;—his story and adventures thus becoming the story of the battle and pre-eminence of the soul,—and of the perpetual warfare between the spirit and the flesh,—Arthur being the type of the soul on earth, from its mysterious coming to its mysterious and deathless going."

The volume of 1859, embraces four of the legends: "Enid" the tried wife of the knight Geraint, emerging in rare beauty in her innocence from an unworthy persecution; "Vivien," the wily subduer of the weird enchanter Merlin; "Elaine," the lily maid of

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Astolat, entranced by her passion for Lancelot, awakening the wrath of the Queen and ending in her pathetic death and burial; and "Guinivere," the sad story of her fall and the pathetic lofty action of the King. The "Holy Grail," was added in 1869; which, with "The Coming of Arthur," "Pelleas and Ettarre," and "Gareth and Lynette," the last in 1872, complete the series of the Arthurian "Idyls." A dedication prefixed to the whole is a noble tribute to the memory of Prince Albert.

In addition to the volumes already enumerated of Tennyson's writings, there are to be mentioned the popular tale "Enoch Arden," in the author's felicitous blank verse, of which, in the "Idylls," he had shown himself so consummate a master; the collection of lyrics, set to music, entitled, "The Window; or the Songs of the Wrens;" and, among other miscellaneous poems, the few of a national or patriotic character, as the "Ode on the Death of the Duke of Wellington," "The Charge of the Light Brigade," "The Ode Sung at the Opening of the International Exhibition" and the "Welcome to the Princess Alexandra." These latter poems may be assigned to his office or dignity as Poet Laureate, to which he succeeded on the death of Wordsworth. The poet also bears the honorary title of Doctor of Civil Law, conferred upon him by the University of Oxford.

The reception of his poems has been such as has been seldom accorded by their contemporaries to men of genius. The best artists of the time, including Doré, Mulready, Millais, and Maclise, have been employed as illustrators of his works, which have employed the powers of the best critics in his praise, and have further had the singular honor of being presented in two minute and elaborate verbal Concordances.

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ULYSSES SIMPSON GRANT.

THE ancestry of General Grant is traced to an early Pilgrim emigrant, Matthew Grant, who came to Massachusetts with his wife, Priscilla, from Dorsetshire, England, in 1630. After a few years' residence at Dorchester, having lost his wife, Matthew settled at Windsor, in Connecticut, where he became a man of consequence, and was a second time married.

Ulysses Simpson Grant was the seventh in descent from this alliance. Members of the family served in the old Indian and French wars, and in the war for Independence, Noah, the grandfather of Ulysses, having entered the service at Lexington, and attained the rank of captain. After the war was over, he was settled for a while in Pennsylvania, and subsequently established himself in a house in Ohio. His son, Jesse Root Grant, then in his childhood, accompanied him, and after various youthful adventures, entered upon manhood with the occupation of a tanner. At the age of twenty-seven, he married Hannah Simpson, and of this alliance was born at the family residence, Point Pleasant, Clermont County, Ohio, on the 27th of April, 1822, Ulysses Simpson Grant. This, however, was not the baptismal name of the child. He was christened Hiram Ulysses Grant, the first name apparently exhibiting a trace of the ancestral Puritan associations of the family; the second, Ulysses, having been inspired by a no less classical authority than the "Telemachus of Fenelon," a stray copy of which had brought the fame of the Homeric hero to the homestead on the Ohio. We shall see presently by what accident the name was changed. The boy grew up in the Buckeye State, under the paternal training, accustomed to the industry of the tan-yard; and outside of the labors of this sturdy pursuit, finding ready relief in the manly rural sports and adventures of Western life, with an especial zest for all that related to horsemanship. He became in fact so great an adept in riding, that he practiced some of the daring feats of the ring. In such hardy pursuits, Grant grew up a rather quiet, self-reliant youth, and on his approach to manhood, exhibited a spirit of independence in an uncompromising disrelish of the somewhat rough toil of the tannery. On his rejecting this mode of life, his father, looking round for a

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entered according to act of Congress A.D. 1869, by Johnson, Fry & Co. in the clerks office of the district court for the southern district of N.Y.

U. S. Grant.

From the original painting by Chappel in the possession of the publishers.

Johnson, Fry & Co. Publishers, New York.

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pursuit for his son, the thought happily occurred to him of a cadetship at West Point. Accidentally there was a vacancy in the district, and an application to the representative in Congress secured it. The member confounding the family names, sent in the application for Ulysses Simpson Grant. Under this name the appointment was made out, and the authorities at the Military Academy being indifferent or unwilling to correct the error, the candidate was compelled to accept the designation. He entered West Point in 1839, at the age of seventeen, and graduated in due course, in 1843, the twenty-first in a class of thirty-nine. He had no great reputation in the academy as a student, though he displayed a taste for mathematics; while his general abilities and moral qualities were undoubted. The skill in horsemanship which he carried with him, distinguished him in the exercises of the riding-school. His biographer, Albert D. Richardson, to whom we are indebted for many interesting personal notices of Gen. Grant, has recorded an anecdote of his proficiency in this accomplishment. "There was nothing," says he, "he could not ride. He commanded, sat, and jumped a horse with singular ease and grace; was seen to the best advantage when mounted and at a full gallop; could perform more feats than any other member of his class, and was altogether one of the very best riders West Point has ever known.

"The noted horse of that whole region, was a powerful, long-legged sorrel, known as 'York.' Grant and his classmate, Couts, were the only cadets who rode him at all, and Couts could not approach Grant. It was his delight to jump York over the fifth bar, about five feet from the ground; and the best leap ever made at West Point, something more than six feet, is still marked there as 'Grant's upon York.' York's way was to approach the bar at a gentle gallop, crouch like a cat, and fly over with rarest grace. One would see his fore feet high in the air, his heels rising as his fore feet fell, and then all four falling lightly together. It needed a firm seat, a steady hand, and a quick eye to keep upon the back of that flying steed. At the final examination, his chief achievement was with his famous horse York. In presence of the Board of Visitors, he made the famous leap of six feet and two or three inches."

Grant left West Point with the brevet appointment of second lieutenant in the 4th Infantry, and presently joined his regiment at Jefferson Barracks, St. Louis, Missouri, where he became acquainted, and formed an attachment to the sister of one of his academy classmates, Miss Julia Dent, the lady who subsequently became his wife. This was the period of meditated Texas annexation, which under the influences of Southern political necessities, was being steadily forced upon the country. Portions of the small national army were gradually concentrated on the Southern frontier. The regiment to which Grant was attached, was pushed forward in the movement, tarrying a year at Fort Jessup, on Red River, when it was sent to Corpus Christi, Texas, forming a part of General Taylor's army of observation, Grant being now promoted full

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second lieutenant, and in the spring of 1846, reached the Rio Grande. It was a challenge to the Mexican forces on the right bank of the river, which they were not long in accepting. The contest fairly began in May, with the battles of Palo Alto and Resaca de la Palma in both of which actions Grant was actively engaged. He was also in the thick of the fight in the severe assault of Monterey, in September. Shortly after the arrival of General Scott at Vera Cruz, in the beginning of the following year, Grant joined that commander, his regiment with others having been withdrawn from the forces of General Taylor, to take part in the expedition against the capital. He was with the army of Scott in the successive battles from Cerro Gordo, onward, which marked the victorious progress to the city of Mexico, ever active in the field and as quartermaster, and was breveted first lieutenant and captain for gallant and meritorious conduct at Molino del Rey and Chapultepec.

The war being ended, Grant, on a visit to St. Louis, married his betrothed in August, 1848, and was subsequently stationed for two years with his regiment at Detroit, with a brief interval of service at Sackett's Harbor, discharging the duties of quartermaster. In 1852, his regiment was sent to the Pacific, and stationed in the vicinity of Portland, Oregon, where in 1853, he was promoted to a full captaincy. He was then ordered with his company to Fort Humboldt, in Northern California. Here, having been subjected to certain animadversions from Washington, on the ground of intemperate drinking, on an intimation of the charge in the summer of 1854, he resigned his commission. He now passed several years in farming operations with his wife's family in Missouri, and in 1859, became engaged with a friend in business at St. Louis as real estate agent, with the firm of Boggs & Grant. At this time he made an application to the authorities of the city for a local office. The characteristic letter addressed to the Hon. County Commissioners, in which he presented his claims, has been preserved by his biographers; it reads as follows: "Gentlemen: I beg leave to submit myself as an applicant for the office of County Engineer, should the office be rendered vacant, and at the same time to submit the names of a few citizens who have been kind enough to recommend me for the office. I have made no effort to get a large number of names, nor the names of persons with whom I am not personally acquainted. I enclose herewith also, a statement from Prof. J. J. Reynolds, who was a classmate of mine at West Point, as to qualifications.

"Should your honorable body see proper to give me the appointment, I pledge myself to give the office my entire attention, and shall hope to give general satisfaction.

Very respectfully,

Your obedient servant,

U. S. Grant."

This application, though backed by a goodly number of business friends, was rejected, his competitor for the office succeeding, it is said, through greater political influence, though it must be admitted, there was but a feeble recognition at this time of the talents and character by which Grant subsequent-

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ly became so famous. "There was no other special objection to him," says his biographer, Richardson, "than his supposed democratic proclivities from his political antecedents. His ability as an engineer was accorded. He was not much known, though the commissioners had occasionally seen him about town, a trifle shabby in dress, with pantaloons tucked in his boots. They supposed him a good office man, but hardly equal to the high responsibility of keeping the roads in order. He might answer for a clerk, but in this county engineership, talent and efficiency were needed."

A partial amend for this disappointment was made by a minor position in the Custom House at St. Louis, out of which he was thrown after a few weeks possession by the death of his superior, the collector. On the prospect of a vacancy in the County Engineership in 1860, he sent in a second application to the commissioners, but the office was not vacated, and of course nothing came of it. In this extremity of his fortunes, having a family to support, he removed to Galena, Illinois, where his father had established a profitable leather business. In this store Grant was employed at the very humble salary of eight hundred dollars. In this position he was found when the attack on Sumter, in the spring of 1861, summoned the country to arms for the preservation of the integrity of the Union. The news that this first blow was struck, in Illinois, as elsewhere in the North and West, fired the heart of the people. Grant's town of Galena was not behind in this national emotion. A meeting on the instant was held, at which Washburn, member of Congress of the district, and Rawlins, a young lawyer of the place, destined to become distinguished in the United States army, were speakers, and gave expression to the enthusiasm of the hour. Their voice was for the uncompromising maintenance of the National Union, and their expressions were unequivocal that this involved an armed struggle. Grant was present, quite willing to accept the conclusion, and expressed his intention again to enter the service. At a second meeting, he was called upon to preside, and being apparently the only one in the region who knew anything of military organization, unfolded some of the details required in raising troops, which was now the order of the day. He was active in the preliminary local movements, in getting together volunteers; and Washburn, who began to appreciate his merits, presented his claims to command unsuccessfully in these first days to Governor Yates, at Springfield. Grant, meanwhile, had offered his services to the War Department at Washington, and the application remained unanswered; nor had an application to the Governor of Ohio met a better fate. Governor Yates, now of necessity, gave him employment as clerk in his military office, and under like exigency, though still without a commission, became actively engaged in the work of military organization. Nearly two months had now passed, and Grant was on a visit to his father in Covington, opposite Cincinnati, when General McClellan was in command. It is related that Grant called upon him twice without "proposing to ask for an appointment, but

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thinking that McClellan might invite him to come on his staff."* The accident of not meeting McClellan, offers a curious subject for speculation as to the probable results in diverting a man of mark from the future great destiny which awaited him. Before he reached Illinois, on his return, a dispatch from Governor Yates to Grant was on its way, appointing him colonel of the twenty-first Illinois volunteers. In this capacity Grant began his actual service in the war, marching his men to northern Missouri, where he discharged the duties of acting Brigadier-General. Congress was now in session in July, and the organization of the national army of volunteers was proceeding at Washington, and at the urgency of Washburn, Grant received the commission of Brigadier-General. He was now placed in command of the district of south-eastern Missouri, including the neighboring territory at the junction of the Ohio and Mississippi, with his head-quarters at Cairo. He began by rendering an important service to the country. In the nick of time, in advance of orders from General Fremont, commander of the Western Department, and in anticipation of the Confederate General Polk, who was bent on appropriating the district, and was about moving on from his head-quarters below, at Columbus, Grant detailed a portion of his command to take possession of Paducah, Kentucky, an important station for military purposes, at the mouth of the Tennessee. Thus promptly securing this station, he addressed a proclamation to the citizens of Paducah, dated September 6th, well qualified by its courtesy and firmness to vindicate his course in allaying the jealousies, and at the same time repressing any hostility which might be expected from the border State, a portion of whose territory he was occupying. "I am come among you," says he, "not as an enemy, but as your fellow-citizen; not to maltreat you, nor annoy you, but to respect, and enforce the rights of all loyal citizens. An enemy, in rebellion against our common government, has taken possession of, and planted his guns on the soil of Kentucky, and fired upon you. Columbus and Hickman are in his hands. He is moving upon your city. I am here to defend you against this enemy, to assist the authority and sovereignty of your government. I have nothing to do with opinions, and shall deal only with armed rebellion and its aiders and abettors. You can pursue your usual avocations without fear. The strong arm of the government is here to protect its friends, and to punish its enemies. Whenever it is manifest that you are able to defend yourselves, and maintain the authority of the government, and protect the rights of loyal citizens, I shall withdraw the forces under my command."

Grant's friend Rawlins joined him at Cairo, as assistant adjutant general. A participation in friendship and military duty continued during the struggle, and which, at the present writing (1869) has culminated in his appointment in the cabinet of the president as Secretary of War.

In November, Fremont having taken the field on the Arkansas border, where he was opposed to the rebel general

* Richardsons' "Personal History of Grant."

Price, ordered Grant to make a demonstration in the direction of Columbus to prevent the co-operation of Polk with the enemy in Arkansas. Grant, accordingly gathering his newly recruited forces, about three thousand men, embarked with them on transports on the 6th, and moved down the river. Resting for the night at a point on the shore, he learnt that Polk had thrown over a force from Columbus to Belmont, immediately opposite, on the Missouri side. To carry out the object of the expedition, and to test the valor of his troops, he resolved upon an attack. He landed his men about three miles above Belmont, out of range of the guns at Columbus, and leaving a batallion of infantry to protect his boats, advanced on the enemy's camp, where General Pillow had concentrated about twenty-five hundred men. Meeting the confederates on the way, the land was swampy and covered with timber, there was considerable miscellaneous firing, in which Grant's horse was shot under him. This was carried on through the morning hours, ending in a determined push upon the enemy, and the capture of their camp, with its artillery and personal spoils. The raw recruits, elated by success, began the work of plunder, and presently the tents were set on fire. As all this was visible at headquarters at Columbus, Polk directed his guns at the spot and brought over reinforcements to intercept the Union troops on their return, which Grant and his officers, fully aware of the situation, with energy, though not without difficulty, were conducting. The men were brought through a fire of skirmishers to the boats, carrying off a number of prisoners, with all possible care for the wounded, Grant being the last man on the bank to re-embark. It is said that while he was riding slowly along in the dress of a private, he was pointed out by General Polk, as a target to his men, who were too intent on firing upon the crowded transports to take advantage of this opportunity within their reach. This was the battle, as it was termed, of Belmont, with a result which fully justified the movement, a heavy loss having been inflicted on the enemy, in killed, wounded, and prisoners; the indicated diversion having been effected, and what was more, at the time, in the words of Grant in a private letter to his father immediately after the engagement: "confidence having been given in the officers and men of this command, that will enable us to lead them in any future engagement, without fear of the result."

The next military movement of consequence in which Grant was engaged, grew out of his timely proceeding in gaining command of the Tennessee river at Paducah. Halleck was now Grant's superior in the Western department, and was planning a comprehensive scheme of attack upon the enemy on the Kentucky and Tennessee frontier, proportionate to the importance and magnitude which the conflict had now assumed.

January, 1862, saw these plans perfected; the design was to dislodge the enemy on the upper waters of the Tennessee and the Cumberland, and thus gain possession of the river communication with the interior. Grant moved with a land force on the 2nd of Feb-

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ruary, ascending the Tennessee in transports from Paducah, supported by a flotilla of gunboats under Com. Foote. Fort Henry was the immediate object of attack, and the position was gained in the preliminary assault by the gunboats in a close encounter, General Tilman, the commander of the garrison, making a timely escape with his men to Fort Donelson, distant but twelve miles on the Cumberland, which thus far pursued a parallel course with the Tennessee. Grant now saw his opportunity to strike a blow by advancing immediately upon Fort Donelson. With characteristic energy he would have moved at once, but was prevented by a rising of the Tennessee, which put the roads under water, and made them impracticable for artillery. On the 12th, he moved upon the position, and began the investment of the place. Weather of intense severity set in, and the men suffered fearfully from exposure; still the work went on, with sharp skirmishing, reinforcements meanwhile arriving, and Foote bringing up his gunboats on the Cumberland. An attack of the latter upon the works failed of success, on account of the high position of the enemy's guns above the river. On the 15th, the enemy, despairing of maintaining their position, though numbering a large force, ably defended by artillery, attacked the right of the investing army, held by McClernand. They had gained some advantage when Grant came upon the ground, arriving from an interview with Foote. Detecting by his military sagacity, from the fact that the prisoners' haversacks were filled with rations, the intention of the enemy to cut their way out, he resolved upon an immediate assault upon the works, ordering the veteran General C. F. Smith, in command on the left, to begin the attack. This was made late in the afternoon with great gallantry, and ended in Smith's gaining a position which commanded the fort. That night the enemy evacuated the position, the rebel generals Floyd and Pillow escaping with a large portion of the force by boats up the river, leaving General Buckner to arrange the conditions of surrender. He accordingly, at daylight on the morning of the 16th, sent a dispatch to General Grant proposing an armistice, with a view of entering on negotiations. To this Grant, on the night after, sent the following reply: "Yours of this date, proposing armistice, an appointment of commissioners to settle terms of capitulation, is just received. No terms except an unconditional and immediate surrender can be accepted. I propose to move immediately upon your works." Stript of his troops by the flight of the rebel-generals, Buckner had no choice left, but submission. The United States flag was raised at Fort Donelson, and fourteen thousand prisoners were transported to Cairo. For that good day's work Grant was made a major-general of volunteers.

Notwithstanding Grant's brilliant success at Donelson, his character appears to have been so little understood by General Halleck that, after several annoying complaints, Grant felt compelled to ask to be relieved from further duty in the department. This, however, Halleck would not accept, and ordered a disposition of the forces which soon brought Grant again into

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action. Two months later occurred the battle of Pittsburgh Landing, on the Tennessee River. Under the orders of his superior, Grant had brought together at this place all the troops in his command, numbering 38,000 men, and he was expecting Buell from Nashville to join him with about the same number. The enemy was assembling his forces at Corinth, an important railway junction twenty miles distant. Exaggerated reports of their strength were current in the Union Camp, and as the position was badly defended, and an immediate attack was feared, Grant began to look with anxiety for the arrival of his reinforcements. At last, on the 5th of April, the van of Buell's army reached the Tennessee a few miles below the camp, and were ordered to hold themselves in readiness for immediate action, as skirmishing had already commenced. On Sunday, the 6th of April, the rebel General A. S. Johnson made an attack in force. General Prentiss was in command of that side of the camp where the attack began, and he had only time to form his line before he was driven back by the advancing columns. The field was soon swept by the enemy, and the Union forces pushed to the river, where they were partially protected by the gunboats. The reinforcements which had arrived the day before, and the rest of Buell's army which had followed them, did not come upon the ground until too late to be of service on that day. At the beginning of the battle, General Grant was at his headquarters at Savannah, but hearing of the action, immediately reached the ground and was engaged on the field in the afternoon in rallying his broken divisions. When he perceived that the ardor of the enemy's attack had somewhat abated, and that they did not pursue their advantage as they might, he determined to renew the fight on the next morning, believing, as he said, that in such circumstances, when both sides were nearly worn out, the one that first showed a bold front would win. Such was his determination, when the arrival of Buell's 20,000 fresh troops placed the hoped for success almost beyond a doubt. The next day the fight was accordingly resumed, and after a series of severe contests, Beauregard, who had succeeded to the command of General Johnson, who was killed in the first day's engagement, retired with his army to Corinth. The fatigue of the troops, and the roads rendered impassable by the showers of rain, made pursuit impossible.

Soon after this, General Halleck, the head of the department, took the field, and Grant became second in command. After the evacuation of Corinth by the enemy, when Halleck was called to Washington, as General-in-Chief, the force which had been gathered on the Tennessee was divided up into different commands. Buell was sent with his army to the east, and General Grant was assigned to the army of West Tennessee. The battles of Iuka, and the second battle of Corinth, in September and October, proved the successful management of his department. His command having been greatly increased, he established his head-quarters, in December, at Holly Springs in Mississippi, and henceforth was engaged in the arduous operations in that State, which

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for many months employed the forces on the Mississippi, till final victory crowned their efforts in the capture of Vicksburg, with its garrison, a triumph doubly memorable by its association with the day of independence—the full surrender being made and the flag raised over the vaunted stronghold on the 4th of July, 1863. The campaign of General Grant immediately preceding the close investment of the city gained him the highest reputation as a commander, at home and abroad. After the Union forces had been disappointed in repeated efforts to take the city with its formidable works by direct assault or near approach, General Grant, at the end of April, landed a force on the Mississippi shore, about sixty miles below, defeated the enemy at Port Gibson, thus turning Grand Gulf, which consequently was abandoned to the naval force on the river; advanced into the interior, again defeated the enemy at Raymond, on the 12th of May; moved on and took possession of Jackson, the capital of the State; then marched westward towards Vicksburg, defeating the forces General Pemberton, the commander of that post, sent out to meet him, at Baker's Creek, and again at Black River Bridge. All this was the work of a few days, the eighteenth of the month bringing the army in the immediate vicinity of Vicksburg, in command of all its communications with the interior. The siege followed; it was conducted with eminent steadfastness and ability, and surrendered, as we have stated, in an unconditional triumph. For this eminent service, General Grant was promoted Major-General in regular army.

This great success finally determined Grant's position before the country, and the estimation in which he was now held was all the more enthusiastic and secure in consequence of the distrust which, in spite of his successes, had in a great degree attended his course. It had in fact been with difficulty that he had been retained in his command before Vicksburg; and it had been wholly owing to his self-reliance that had carried out his own plan of throwing himself in his final successful movement upon the passage of the river below the fortress. President Lincoln unreservedly acknowledged Grant's superior prescience and his own want of confidence. When all was over and the Mississippi was virtually opened to the sea, he wrote to the General, "When you got below and took Port Gibson, Grand Gulf, and vicinity, I thought you would go down the river and join General Banks; and when you hurried northward east of the Big Black, I feared it was a mistake. I now wish to make the personal acknowledgment that you were right and I was wrong."

This period also practically saw an end on the part of his opponents of the scandal which had at different times been revived against Grant on the charge of intemperance in drinking. During the protracted siege of Vicksburg, an impatient grumble, we are told by Richardson, demanded his removal from the President. "For what reason?" asked Lincoln. "Because he drinks so much whiskey." "Ah! yes," was the reply, "by the way, can you tell me where he gets his whiskey? He has given us about all the successes, and if his whiskey does it, I should

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like to send a barrel of the same brand to every General in the field." In fact, Grant, as his biographer just cited states, "was never under the influence of drinking to the direct or indirect detriment of the service for a single moment, and after the restoration of peace, planted his feet on the safe and solid ground of total abstinence."

In October, Grant was again called to the field. Rosecrans had been badly defeated by Bragg and Longstreet at Chickamauga, in Tennessee, and Thomas, who had superseded him, was now closely hemmed in by the enemy at Chattanooga. Grant, while on a visit to New Orleans in the summer, had been thrown by a restive horse, sustaining severe bruises, which confined him to his bed for several weeks, and at the time he received his orders to join the army of the Tennessee, he was only able to move about on crutches, but his bodily suffering in no way subdued his characteristic energy. He immediately brought up Sherman with a large reinforcement, and at the same time Hooker with his army was sent by General Halleck from Virginia. In the succeeding battle of Chattanooga, Grant attacked the enemy in his own position, and after a series of conflicts, among the severest in the war, the Union troops, led by Hooker and Sherman, drove the rebels from their lines, forcing Bragg to retreat into Georgia, and thus exposing the centre of the Confederate States.

In consequence of these brilliant successes, the grade of Lieutenant-General was revived by Congress and conferred upon General Grant. He was now Commander-in-chief of all the armies of the United States. That he fully appreciated how much in attaining this rank he owed to his subordinates, is shown by the following letter addressed to Sherman, on quitting the west. After announcing his promotion, he says: "Whilst I have been eminently successful in this war, in at least gaining the confidence of the public, no one feels more than I, how much of this success is due to the energy, skill, and harmonious putting forth of that energy and skill, of those whom it is my good fortune to have occupying subordinate positions under me.

"There are many officers to whom these remarks are applicable to a greater or less degree, proportionate to their ability as soldiers; but what I want is, to express my thanks to you and to M'Pherson, as the men to whom, above all others, I feel indebted for whatever I have had of success.

"How far your advice and assistance have been of help to me you know. How far your execution of whatever has been given to you to do, entitles you to the reward I am receiving, you cannot know as well as I.

"I feel all the gratitude this letter would express, giving it the most flattering construction.

"The word *you*, I use in the plural, intending it for M'Pherson also."

Grant had now the whole country before him to chose his own field of operations. His first thoughts were turned to Georgia, where the opportunities opened up by the success at Chattanooga, invited him to a campaign in the interior, but looking round he saw that the head and front of the rebellion was still at Richmond, and he

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determined to face the enemy upon the ground where, hitherto undefeated, a victory gained over him would be most decisive in breaking the power of the Confederacy.

Grant's design was now to make a simultaneous attack along the whole Union line, from the James River to New Orleans. He took the command of the army of the Potomac in person, and moved from his headquarters at Culpepper Court-House on the 4th of May, with the object of putting himself between Richmond and Lee's army, which was then a few miles distant, at Orange Court-House. The enemy, however, apprised of his movement, fell upon his flank; and the two days fighting in the Wilderness, that ensued, were among the bloodiest conflicts of the war. Grant barely held his ground, but although the losses he sustained were as great as those which had driven Hooker and Meade back to Washington, he held on to the design of cutting the rebel line, and before the last gun was fired in the Wilderness, his front had again encountered Lee's troops at Spottsylvania. Here the contest was renewed, and lasted with various movements and great slaughter for twelve days. It was now evident that success, however determined the onset, and with whatever sacrifice of life, was not to be determined by a first or a second blow. Grant, however, was not to be deterred from his purpose, which he expressed in a memorable dispatch. "I propose to fight it out on this line if it takes all summer." The line, however, as at another earlier crisis of the war, proved not so direct as was anticipated by the public, which learnt only by degrees the full measure of the enemy's strength and resolution. By a flank movement, Grant now directed his forces to strategic points of importance on the road to Richmond, successfully accomplishing, though not without opposition, the passage of the North Anna, to encamp again on the old battle-grounds of McClellan. The struggle was renewed in a desperate but impracticable assault on the enemy's line at Chickahominy.

From this point the contest was rapidly transferred to the James River; Petersburg was invested; and the effort, henceforth, was to command the enemy's supplies, and draw closer the lines of the siege by cutting off his communications by railroad with the granaries of the South. When that region was devastated by the march of Sherman to the sea, and the force of the Rebellion in men and provisions was fairly exhausted, then, and not till then, he yielded to the steady and repeated blows of Grant and his generals. The surrender took place at Appomattox Court-House, on the 9th of April, 1865, in a personal interview between the two commanders, Grant accepting liberal terms of capitulation.

These successes of Grant in the field, in terminating the war, with the good sense and ability, mingled firmness and moderation which he had uniformly displayed as a leader of events, marked him out as the inevitable candidate for the presidency of the party to whom had fallen the conduct of the war. The interval which elapsed saw him steadily engaged at Washington, occupied with his duties as Lieutenant-

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General, and for a short time during the suspension of Stanton, acting Secretary of War.

When the Republican National Convention met at Chicago, in May, 1868, Grant was unanimously nominated for the presidency on the first ballot. In his letter of acceptance, after endorsing the resolutions of the Convention, he added,—"If elected to the office of President of the United States, it will be my endeavor to administer all the laws in good faith, with economy, and with the view of giving peace, quiet, and protection everywhere. In times like the present, it is impossible, or at least eminently improper, to lay down a policy to be adhered to, right or wrong, through an administration of four years. New political issues not foreseen, are constantly arising; the views of the public on old ones are constantly changing, and a purely administrative office should always be left free to execute the will of the people. I always have respected that will, and always shall.

"Peace, and universal prosperity—its sequence, with economy of administration, will lighten the burden of taxation, while it constantly reduces the national debt. Let us have peace."

At the election in November, Grant was chosen President by the vote of twenty-six States; Mississippi, Florida, Texas, and Virginia, not voting, and the Democrats carrying Delaware, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisana, Maryland, New Jersey, New York, and Oregon; his popular majority over Horatio Seymour, in the direct votes being something over three hundred thousand.

President Grant's inaugural address on assuming the Presidency was marked by ato ne of moderation and deference to the will of the people, as expressed in the Acts of Congress. His administration has been in accord with their measures. Among the leading features of its domestic policy, has been the gradual restoration to the South of its privileges, forfeited by the necessities of the war, and the reduction of the national debt; while its foreign policy has secured the negotiation of the treaty of arbitration with England for the settlement of claims, arising from the negligence or wrong-doing of that country in relation to certain questions of international law, during the Southern rebellion. When, in 1872, at the approaching conclusion of his term of office, a new nomination was to be made for the Presidency, he was again chosen by the convention of the Republican party as their candidate.

The result of the election was equally decided with that following his first nomination. He received the vote of thirty-one states, with a popular majority, over Horace Greeley, of 762,991. The second inauguration, on the 4th of March, 1873, though the day was severely cold, was celebrated by an imposing civil and military procession, with a large attendance at the capitol. In his address, the President alluded to the restoration of the Southern States to their federal relations; the new policy adopted towards the Indians; the civil service rules, and other topics of foreign and domestic administration, with a general reference to the tendency of the world towards Republicanism.

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CHARLOTTE SAUNDERS CUSHMAN.

THIS eminent actress has a distinguished ancestry, both on the father and mother's side, in the old New England stock of Puritan settlers. Robert Cushman, of whom she is a descendant, was one of the founders of Plymouth Colony, a member of the original band of Nonconformists, in Holland, who crossed the Atlantic in the "Mayflower." He came over in the succeeding vessel, in 1621, in time to preach the first sermon in America that was printed. He was much engaged in negotiations for the welfare of the colonists; and, on his death, in the early years of the settlement, left a name which has always been warmly cherished by his successors in the country. On the mother's side, the family of Saunders, of like Puritan descent, settled at Cape Ann, and was equally respected. It probably never occurred to these worthies that, in the course of two or three generations they would be brought into notice by the merits of a performer on the stage, a daughter of their house.

Charlotte Saunders Cushman was born at Boston, July 23, 1816. Her father was a merchant of that city, who had attained some prosperity, when he was overtaken by reverses and died, leaving a widow and five children in destitute circumstances. The mother, displaying a characteristic energy, provided for their support by keeping a boarding-house in Boston. Charlotte, the eldest, was early distinguished by her taste for music and capacity as a singer, as well as for her fondness for dramatic poetry. As she grew up, her fine contralto voice was developed; and her mother, being accomplished in music, appreciated the gift and encouraged its cultivation. This led, in March, 1830, when Charlotte was fourteen, to her first appearance in public, at a social concert given in Boston. She was well received on this occasion, and, having been further instructed by a musician of ability, named Paddon, residing in the city, who had previously been an organist in London, she made such advances that when Mr. and Mrs. Joseph Wood, formerly Miss Paton, gave their first concerts in the city, she sang with them at one of their performances; when Mrs. Wood was so impressed with her ability that she advised her to turn her attention to the stage. "This," says one of her biographers, "was a

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novel proposal, certainly; but, however welcome to herself, our readers will conceive its horror to the hearts of her good family. Presbyterians, and descendants of a leader of the Puritans, they were perhaps the very last to give it an instant's consideration. Of all forms of earthly vanity, they had been taught to abhor the stage the most; and to assent to her adopting it, was nothing less than becoming parties to her surrender to perdition. It was now that that resolution for which she was remarkable, gave the first proof of its strength. More enlightened than her family, and consequently more tolerant, she had learned to value instruments by their grandest applications, and thus even to regard the stage as a means that might be elevated to the height of a moral agent."

Her resolution having been taken, Miss Cushman was placed under the direction of Mr. James G. Maeder, a professor and composer of music, who had accompanied Mrs. Wood to America, by whom she was instructed, and under whose auspices she made her first appearance on the boards, at the Tremont Theatre, in April, 1835, in the part of the Countess in the "Marriage of Figaro," Mrs. Maeder, better known in the history of the stage by her maiden name, Clara Fisher, playing Susanna. Miss Cushman made a decided impression in her performance, which was repeated; and so highly was Mr. Maeder impressed with its merits, that he obtained for her a situation as *prima donna* at the New Orleans Theatre. She proceeded to that city; and on her arrival, from the change of climate or the attempt to extend the compass of her voice, it entirely failed her, so that she was unable to make her expected appearance as a singer. In this emergency her thoughts turned to the stage and the possibilities of success as an actress. Happily, she found a friend and intelligent instructor in Mr. Barton, an English actor in the company, under whose direction she studied the part of Lady Macbeth, and made her *debût* in that character in a performance of the tragedy on his benefit night. It was a bold first step, but it was successfully taken with a consciousness of her powers. From that first performance, doubtless greatly improved as she prosecuted her art, she made the character her own, and it has always remained one of her most distinctive parts. The performance was several times repeated.

At the close of the season in New Orleans, Miss Cushman came to New York; and, being unable to obtain an engagement at the Park Theatre, made her appearance at the Bowery Theatre, under the management of Mr. Hamblin, in Lady Macbeth. Her performances here, the proceeds of which were devoted to the support of her family, were interrupted by illness; and before her health was restored, the theatre was destroyed by fire, and with it all her theatrical wardrobe was lost. She subsequently, in April, 1837, (to follow the record of Mr. Ireland, in his valuable work on the New York Stage), made her appearance at the old National Theatre, then under the management of Mr. Hackett, in Romeo, followed during her engagement by Patrick in the "Poor Soldier,"

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Count Belino, Lady Macbeth, Elvira, Queen Gertrude in "Hamlet," Helen McGregor, Alicia, and Tullia in Payne's "Brutus." She also, in this engagement, first played Meg Merrilies, a part in which she afterwards became eminently distinguished. An engagement at the Park Theatre followed, where her reputation soon became established as a leading actress, and where for several seasons she secured the admiration of the public. Her performance of Nancy Sykes, in a stage adaptation of Dickens' "Oliver Twist," like her Meg Merrilies, was recognized as an impersonation of extraordinary power and ability. In 1839, her younger sister, Miss Susan Cushman, was introduced by her to the stage, at the Park Theatre, and met with success in a gentler line of characters than that in which Charlotte had established her fame. In this first performance, in a play called "The Genoese," Miss Cushman acted the lover Montaldo to her sister's Laura.

Miss Cushman was subsequently engaged at Philadelphia, where her merits attracted the attention of Mr. Macready, in his visit to the country in 1844. She appeared with him in leading parts during his engagement at the Park Theatre in New York; and her success being now fully established on the American boards, she shortly after left with her sister for England, to pursue her advantages on the London stage. She was engaged at the Princess's Theatre in that metropolis, making her first appearance there in February, 1845, in the character of Bianca in "Fazio." This was succeeded by her performance of Lady Macbeth, to which the highest praise was given by the best London critics. Its merits were universally conceded. The stage, said an able writer in the "Athenæum," had long been waiting for "a great actress; one capable of sustaining the gorgeous majesty of the tragic muse," and the desideratum he confessed was supplied in the performance of Miss Cushman. Again, when, a few weeks later she acted Beatrice, we are told by the same journal how she "showed her usual decision and purpose in the assumption of the character—qualities in which, at present, she has not only no rival, but no competitor."

In Julia, in the "Hunchback," she won new laurels, especially in the more forcible passages, being pronounced "the only actress who has at all approached the first representative of the character." She also successfully acted Juliana, in the "Honeymoon." Her Portia was admired, and her Meg Merrilies established as "a performance of fearful and picturesque energy, making a grand impression."

In the following season, Miss Cushman played an engagement at Haymarket Theatre in which she appeared as Romeo to her sister Susan's Juliet. The latter was admired for its beauty and delicacy, and the former, whilst regarded as a bold venture and in some degree as an exceptional performance, was described as "one of the most extraordinary pieces of acting, perhaps, ever exhibited by a woman—masculine in deportment, artistic in conception, complete in execution, positive in its merits, both in parts and as a whole, and successful in its imme-

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diate impression." Miss Cushman also appeared in this engagement as Ion, in Talfourd's Greek tragedy; and in Viola, in "Twelfth Night," to her sister's Olivia, in which they were both much admired. Charlotte's Meg Merrilies again repeatedly acted, became her most popular performance, and it was noticed how, out of the meagre materials of the drama, she had, by her skill and effective additions of by-play, created "a historic whole—a triumph of art."

These successes were continued for several seasons during Miss Cushman's residence abroad. In 1848, her sister Miss Susan Cushman was married to an English gentleman, Dr. Muspratt, and retired from the stage. Charlotte returned to America; and in October, 1849, after an absence of four years, reappeared at the Park Theatre, New York, in the character of Mrs. Haller. During this engagement she personated among other parts, Rosalind, Lady Macbeth, Julia, Queen Katharine, Beatrice, and her now firmly established Meg Merrilies. After a continued series of performances at different theatres throughout the Union announced as preparatory to her retirement from the American stage, she closed with a farewell benefit at the Broadway Theatre, in New York, in May 1852. She then revisited England; to return, however, to the United

States for another professional tour in 1857, in the course of which she acted the part of Cardinal Wolsey, "being probably," says Mr. Ireland, "the first time the character was ever personated by a female." Again visiting England, she returned to America in 1860, and played forty.eight consecutive nights at the Winter Garden Theatre, in New York, during which her powerful representation of Nancy Sykes was revived, after an interval of twenty years. She shortly after again sailed for Europe, "where," says Mr. Ireland, "her devotion to the cause of her country's Union, was most honorably conspicuous during the dark days of the Great Rebellion." In 1863, we find her, in behalf of the Sanitary Committee of the Union, playing Lady Macbeth in Washington in the District of Columbia, and by other performances in Philadelphia, Boston, Baltimore and New York, adding over eight thousand dollars to that charitable national fund.

In 1871, Miss Cushman acted at Booth's Theatre, in New York in-among other parts, her long-established characters of Lady Macbeth, and Meg Merrilies, and appeared at the same theatre the following year.

Of late years, Miss Cushman has made her home at a handsome villa, constructed for her residence at Newport, Rhode Island.

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PIUS THE NINTH.

GIOVANNI MARIA MASTAI FERRETTI, who on his election to the Papal see assumed the name of Pius, a member of a noble Italian family, was born at Sinigaglia, near Ancona, on the eastern coast of Italy, May 13, 1792. As a youth, he was distinguished for his mild disposition and works of charity. While still a child he was saved from drowning by a poor "contadino," who lived to see him seated on the papal throne. At the age of eighteen he went to Rome for the purpose of entering the body-guard of the reigning pontiff, Pius VII. An epileptic attack, however, prevented the attainment of his wishes and seems to have determined the course of his after-life. He entered a religious seminary, where his gentleness and devotion proved the foundation of his future distinction. In due course of time he was elevated to the priesthood, and exercised the sacerdotal functions in the hospital of Tata Giovanni, at Rome, an institution founded for the education of poor orphans. These duties, however, he was compelled to resign on being sent out to South America on a special mission as auditor to M. Mugi, Vicar-Apostolic of Chili. In this capacity he gained some insight into the secrets of policy and diplomacy, the study of which led him to draw out on paper a system of political amelioration for the Papal States. On his return to Europe, he was appointed prelate of the household to Pope Leo XII., and president of the hospital of St. Michael. While holding this post his time was chiefly devoted to the education of the youth of Rome, and certain stated preaching. In 1829, he was nominated Archbishop of Spoleto, from which he was translated in 1832 to the see of Imola, where his charities to the poor greatly endeared him to his flock. Not long afterwards he was sent to Naples as Apostolic Nuncio, and in 1840, he was raised to the dignity of a cardinal, and in June 1846, on the death of Pope Gregory XVI, he was elevated to the papacy.

The condition of affairs in the Papal States at this time was such as to call for a large measure of reform. The new Pope found the financial system on the verge of national bankruptcy; the system of taxation was expensive and capricious; and high posts of the administrative and executive depart-

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Pius PP. IX.

Likeness from an authentic photograph from life.

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ments were openly bought and sold. Peculation prevailed largely in high quarters; the army was filled with mercenaries; civilians were excluded from official life; and the very idea of representation was unknown. The States themselves were under Austrian protection; and the Austrian government, according to its traditionary custom, was jealous of all improvements, both civil and social. Pius IX. is said to have found on his accession no less than two thousand of his subjects in exile or in prison by order of the Austrian authorities. Some attempts at political reform in the Papal States had been made by his predecessor, Gregory, but they were set aside by the civil disturbances of 1830 and 1831. The first step of Pope Pius was to grant an amnesty to all political offenders, to recall the exiles and to liberate the prisoners. The name of Pius IX. became instantly the watchword of liberality and reform. The first year of his pontificate resulted in a mitigation of the censorship of the press, a relaxation of the civil disabilities under which the Jews and other religious bodies labored, a better regulated system of taxation, and a customs'-union with the other Italian states, laying, as it seemed, the foundation of a new era of commerce and national independence.

In February, 1848, however, occurred the French Revolution which dethroned Lous Philippe. The spirit of republicanism spread through Europe. The excitable populace of Rome were not satisfied with the reforms which Pius had introduced. In November of that year of revolution his unpopular minister, Count Rossi, was assassinated; the people rose and established a republican administration, and detained the Pope a prisoner within his own palace. Escaping from Rome in disguise, he arrived safely in Gaeta, in the Neapolitan territory, whither he was followed by the members of the Papal court and the diplomatic corps. He sent to Rome an ordonnance declaring void the acts of the Provisional Government, which for a time maintained its authority. While the Pope was still in exile, in the spring of 1849 a French army under Marshal Oudinot was sent by the Emperor, Napoleon, to enforce his restoration. After a siege that lasted for a month from the beginning of June, Rome surrendered unconditionally to the French, and was garrisoned by them. It was not, however, till April 12, 1850, after an absence of nearly a year and a half, that the Pope re-entered the city. He was supported there by French bayonets, and by his newly organized Swiss Guard. The old ecclesiastical government was in a great measure restored; and order being maintained, the Pope directed his efforts to the spiritual aggrandizement of his see. His attention was specially directed to the promotion of his Church in England by the increase of dioceses in that country; and on the eighth of December, 1854, his pontificate was signalised in history, by the formal definition of the doctrine of the Immaculate Conception, which took place in St. Peter's at Rome, in the presence and with the concurrence of Roman Catholic Bishops from all parts of Christendom. He also succeeded in concluding a Concordat with

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the Austrian government, by which the papal authority was greatly enlarged.

The next events of importance in the reign of Pius IX. grew out of the development of the reform and national spirit in Italy, consequent upon the progress in the conduct of affairs on the peninsula of the growing kingdom of Sardinia, under the rule of Victor Emmanuel. In June, 1859, an insurrection broke out in the Romagna, Bologna, and Ferrara, and initiated a series of movements, both political and military, the general tendency of which was unfavorable to the temporal power, and which culminated in November, 1860, in a vote of annexation, the practical effect of which was to merge nearly all "the ancient patrimony of St. Peter" into the Sardinian monarchy. Protests against the course of events were not wanting on the part of the Pope, who, in bestowing his benediction on the French army of occupation, on the 1st of January, 1860, characterised the pamphlet, "Le Pape et le Congrès," then first issued under the inspiration of Napoleon III., as a "signal monument of hypocrisy, and an ignoble tissue of contradictions;" and who, on the 28th of September following, pronounced an allocution in severe condemnation of the Sardinian government.

On the 8th of December, 1864, being the tenth anniversary of the declaration of the dogma of the Immaculate Conception, the Pope issued an Encyclical Letter, accompanied by an Appendix, consisting of eighty propositions directed against the principal religious and political vices and heresies of the age. These were scheduled as pantheism, naturalism, rationalism, religious indifference, errors, and offences against the Church, errors in philosophy, errors with regard to the doctrine and practice of Christian marriage, the assertion of liberty and independence, and antagonism to the temporal sovereignty of the Pope. The operations of Bible Societies were censured, and the adherents of Socialism and the members of secret societies, as the Freemasons, were condemned; as also were those persons who held the possibility of salvation without the pale of the Church, or who believed that Protestantism was only another form of the true faith, and was equally pleasing to God. The public reading of this Encyclical was prohibited to the French clergy by an imperial decree of the 5th of January, 1865, which, however, the Archbishop of Besançon and some other prelates ventured to disobey. Previously to this, on the 15th of September, a convention had been entered into between Victor Emanuel and Napoleon III, by which it had been stipulated that the troops of the latter should evacuate Rome in two years from that date. In pursuance of this convention, the last detachment of the French troops quitted Rome on the 11th of December, 1866, when General Montebello received a farewell benediction from the Pope, with the assurance of the Pontifical intercession for the temporal and spiritual welfare of the Emperor.

The patriotic impatience of Garibaldi and his followers, who had invaded what was left of the Papal territory, and had repulsed the Papal

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troops at Monte Rotondo, brought about a renewal of the French occupation on the 30th of October, 1867, and the utter discomfiture of the Italian invaders at Mentano, on the 4th of November, on the 18th of which month the Pope celebrated a solemn service for the repose of the victims in the battle which had respited the temporal sovereignty. An allocution of the 20th of December expressed the pontifical gratitude that "while Satan and his satellites and sons ceased not to let loose, in the most horrible manner, their fury against our divine religion, the God of mercy and of goodness sent the valiant soldiers of the Emperor of the French, who rejoiced to come to our aid, and fought with the utmost zeal and ardor, especially at Mentano and Monte Rotondo, thus covering their names with glory." In another allocution, written with reference to the religious affairs of Austria, and dated June 23, 1868, the Pope deplored and condemned as abominable the marriage and other laws depriving the Church of control over schools, and establishing the freedom of the press and liberty of conscience, declaring those laws null and void, censuring those concerned in their initiation, approval or, execution, praising the conduct of the Austrian bishops as defenders of the Concordat, and expressing a hope that the Hungarian bishops would follow in their footsteps. On the 29th of June, 1868, the supreme Pontiff issued a bull fixing the opening of the Œcumenical Council, which had been announced on the 8th of December, 1867, for the 8th of December, 1869. On the 11th of April, the "jubilee of the priesthood of Pope Pius IX.," or the fiftieth anniversary of the celebration of his first mass, was observed with great fervor at Rome, and generally throughout Roman Catholic Christendom; and it is stated that the gifts on this occasion, whether of the clergy or laity throughout Europe and America, reached the value of nearly four millions of dollars.

The interest of the later incumbency of the Roman See groups itself around the efforts made by the Pope for the perpetuation and security of the temporal power, which finally fell as a sequel to the withdrawal of the French troops from Rome in 1870, and the efforts which he has made for the extension of the spiritual prerogative and dominion of his Church. Among the latter, the Œcumenical Council at Rome will always hold the foremost place. A Pre-Synodal Congregation assembled in the Sistine Chapel on the 2d of December, 1869, when the Pope delivered an allocution, and received the oaths of the officers of the approaching Council, which was opened as appointed on the 8th of December, the anniversary of the declaration of the Immaculate Conception, with the ringing of bells and salvos of artillery. The inaugural ceremony took place in St. Peter's Church, whither the Pope marched in the rear of a procession composed of nearly eight hundred ecclesiastics—prince-archbishops, cardinals, patriarchs, archbishops and bishops, abbots and generals of religious orders from all parts of the Christian world; to whom, after mass and an inaugural discourse, the Pope gave

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his blessing. The appointed prayers followed, and the Pope three times invoked the aid and presence of the Holy Spirit at the deliberations of the Council. The session extended over six months. Its most important act was the definition of the dogma of the Infallibility of the Roman Pontiff, declaring and inculcating as a dogma of faith that, in virtue of the divine assistance promised to St. Peter, he "cannot err when, fulfilling his mission as supreme teacher of all Christians, he defines by his Apostolic authority what the Universal Church must hold in matters of faith and morals, and that the prerogative of infallibility extends over the same matters to which the Infallibility of the Church is applicable."

In a letter addressed by King Victor Emmanuel to the Pope, dated Florence, September 8, 1870, the former adverted to the necessity, in the interests of his own crown and of the spiritual power of the supreme Pontiff, and in the face of the events then agitating Europe, that he should occupy Rome and assume the protectorate of the Holy Father. The Pope, who had previously refused to recognize the kingdom of Italy, protested energetically against such an occupation as a "great sacrilege and injustice of high enormity;" notwithstanding that it was undertaken to be effected without loss of the papal revenue or dignity, and without prejudice to the full jurisdiction and sovereignty of the Pope over the Papal city. On the 20th of September, sixteen days after the downfall of the Emperor Napoleon III., the troops of Victor Emmanuel entered Rome, after a short resistance by the Pope's soldiers, who had received orders to yield to violence when violence should be offered. A slight breach in the walls of Rome was thus the sequel for the cessation of the defence of the city. A plebiscite of the Papal dominions was taken early in October, when an almost unanimous vote was recorded for the annexation of Rome and its dependencies to the kingdom of Italy. Perfect freedom of action was left to the Pope, either to remain at Rome or to leave it; and the Italian government undertook, for itself and on the part of the people, that, whatever might be the determination of the Holy Father, he should "never fail to be surrounded with all the honors and all the proofs of respect which were due to him."

Pius IX., a member of a long-lived family, is the first occupant of the chair of St. Peter, who, since the death of that apostle, has held office for the full term of twenty-five years. This was completed on the 16th of June, 1871; but it was only on the 23d of August that his reign reached the duration which tradition ascribes to that of the Apostle—twenty-five years, two months and seven days. This event of the "Pope's Jubilee" was celebrated by sermons, masses and religious ceremonies of imposing solemnity, and the presentation of splendid gifts and offerings.*

* This narrative is abridged from the account of Pope Pius in the "English Cyclopædia."

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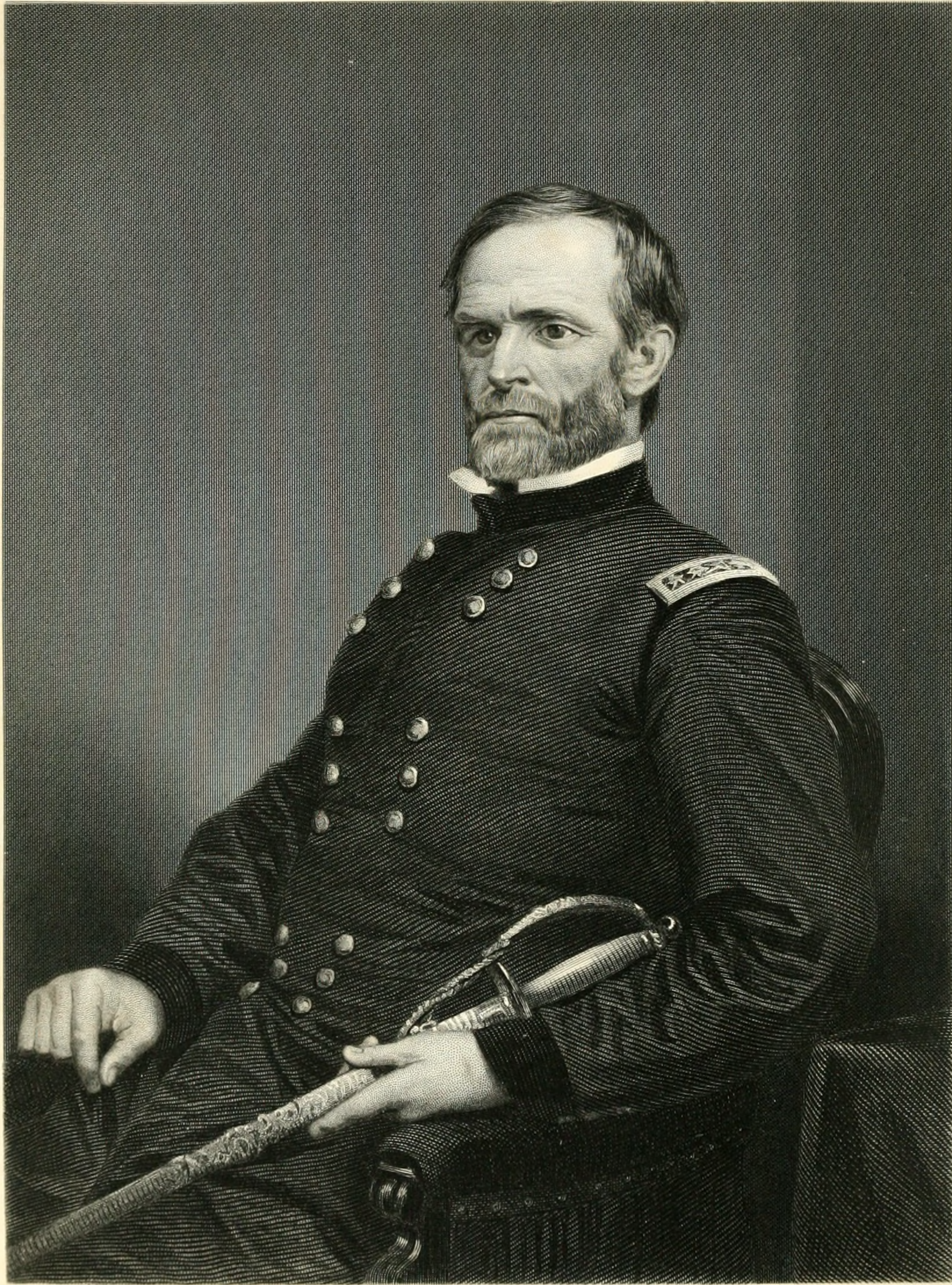

Painted by Alonzo Chappel

W. T. Sherman

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WILLIAM TECUMSEH SHERMAN.

MAJOR GENERAL SHERMAN, of the United States Army, is a descendant of one of the early emigrants from England to Massachusetts in the first generation of colonists of that region. The family established itself in Connecticut where, as time passed on, more than one of the name became conspicuous in the public annals. Of this race was the celebrated Roger Sherman, who, from a shoemaker, became an eminent lawyer; in the war of the Revolution, a signer of the Declaration of Independence; a framer of the Constitution, and a Senator of the United States. Taylor Sherman, the grandfather of the General, was a judge of one of the Connecticut courts. His widow removed with her family to what is now the town of Lancaster, in Fairfield County, in the State of Ohio. One of her children, Charles Robert Sherman, became distinguished in Ohio as a lawyer, and at the time of his death, in 1829, was a Judge of the Supreme Court of the State. Of his eleven children, William Tecumseh was the sixth. He was born in Lancaster, Ohio, February 8, 1820. His father being suddenly cut off by cholera in middle life, the family was inadequately provided for, and William, then about nine years old, was adopted by the Honorable Thomas Ewing, an intimate friend of Judge Sherman. The youth was educated at Lancaster, and at the age of sixteen, on the nomination of his guardian Mr. Ewing, then a Representative in Congress, was admitted as a Cadet at the Military Academy of West Point. He entered with zest into the usual occupations of the place, pursued his studies with credit, and, in 1840, graduated sixth of his class, with a fixed determination to devote his life to the service of his country. His desire, as expressed in a letter which he wrote while an under-graduate, was "to go into the infantry, be stationed in the far West, out of the reach of what is termed civilization, and there remain as long as possible." In another characteristic letter, written a few months before he graduated, he says of the Presidential canvassing then going on: "You, no doubt, are not only firmly impressed, but absolutely certain, that General Harrison will be our next president. For my part, though of course but a superficial observer, I do not think there is the

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least hope of such a change, since his friends have thought proper to envelope his name with log cabins, gingerbread, hard cider, and such humbugging, the sole object of which plainly is to deceive and mislead his ignorant and prejudiced, though honest, fellow-citizens; whilst his qualifications, his honesty, his merits, and services are barely alluded to."* Sherman thus early had a true soldier's dislike to shams and pretences.

On graduating, he was appointed Brevet Second-lieutenant in the Third Regiment of Artillery, and was sent to serve in Florida. There he remained for two years employed in the duties of camp life, with occasional inroads upon the belligerent Indians; and in 1842, after a brief period of command at Fort Morgan, at the Bay of Mobile, was stationed at Fort Moultrie, in Charleston harbor. Here, and with occasional employment in other parts of the South, he continued till 1846, the period of the war with Mexico, when he was assigned to duty as recruiting-officer at Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania. At his request for active service in the field, he was presently, in the summer of that year, ordered to California to act in concert with Colonel Kearney's overland expedition. There he was employed as Acting-Assistant Adjutant-General of the forces in the Tenth Military Department, discharging the duties of the office with exemplary fidelity and efficiency. In 1850, he returned to the United States, and was married to the daughter of his friend Mr. Ewing. In the following year he was brevetted captain for his services in Mexico. In 1853, the Army offering but an inadequate means of support, he resigned his commission and became a manager of the branch banking-house of Messrs. Lucas, Turner & Co., at San Francisco. He was engaged in this business for some years, till the branch-house was closed up; after which, early in 1860, he accepted the office of Superintendent of the State Military Academy of Louisiana, at Alexandria.

Here he displayed his usual vigor and administrative abilities, and when the schemes of the Southern leaders were ripe for open hostility, they hoped to secure the powerful aid of Sherman and retain him in their service. But he was too clear-sighted and sincere a patriot to accept such conditions. When the disguise which had been maintained was removed, and the State of Louisiana had placed itself in an open attitude of rebellion, Sherman did not for a moment hesitate, but placed his resignation in the hands of the governor in the following characteristic letter: "Sir, As I occupy a quasi-military position under this State, I deem it proper to acquaint you that I accepted such a position when Louisiana was a State in the Union, and when the motto of the Seminary, inserted in marble over the main door, was: '*By the liberality of the General Government of the United States: The Union —Esto Perpetua.*' Recent events foreshadow a great change, and it becomes

* Sherman and his Campaigns: a military Biography, by Col. S. M. Bowman and Lt.-Col. R. B. Irwin, to which valuable work and a Memoir of Sherman, also by Col. Bowman, in the "United States Service Magazine" for August and September, 1864, we are greatly indebted for the materials of this notice.

all men to choose. If Louisiana withdraws from the Federal Union, I prefer to maintain my allegiance to the old constitution as long as a fragment of it survives, and my longer stay here would be wrong in every sense of the word. In that event, I beg you will send or appoint some authorized agent to take charge of the arms and munitions of war here belonging to the State, or direct me what disposition should be made of them. And, furthermore, as President of the Board of Supervisors, I beg you to take immediate steps to relieve me as superintendent the moment the State determines to secede; for on no earthly account will I do any act, or think any thought, hostile to or in defiance of the old government of the United States."

Sherman now left the South, joined his family at the North, and soon offered his services at Washington for the suppression of the rebellion, of the danger and magnitude of which he in vain warned the authorities. Lincoln, it is said, smiled at his enthusiastic energy. "We shall not need many men like you," said he; "the affair will soon blow over." Sherman had lived too long in the South, and had too recently escaped from the intrigues of the rebel chiefs, not to know better. It was the season of palliatives; nor could the ingenuous mind of an American patriot readily be brought to believe in the probability of so atrocious a war as that which was soon after waged against the honor and liberties of the country. Sherman's friends, knowing his ability, sought employment for him, first as Chief Clerk of the War Department, and afterwards as Quartermaster-General in place of Gen. Joseph E. Johnson, resigned; but both applications were neglected. Presently Fort Sumter fell; the North was aroused to arms, and Sherman was directed to raise a regiment of three months' men in Ohio. He did not believe in three months' soldiers in a war the magnitude of which he clearly foresaw; and waited, knowing that he would not have long to wait, for more regular and important service. When the United States army was enlarged in May, he was appointed colonel of the new Thirteenth regiment of Infantry. Before the command was organized, Gen. McDowell, with the levies of Volunteers, took the field before Washington, and, in view of the impending attack on the enemy at Manassas, Col. Sherman was ordered to report to him, and in the organization of his forces, was appointed to the command of the Third Brigade in the division of Brigadier-General Tyler. The brigade was composed of the Thirteenth, Sixty-ninth, and Seventy-ninth New York and Second Wisconsin regiments of Infantry, with Capt. Ayres' battery of the Regular Artillery.

In the movement preliminary to the battle at Bull Run, Sherman's Brigade was in the advance with Tyler's division, in the occupation of Centreville, and in the dispositions of the memorable Sunday, the 21st of July, was sent to threaten the Stone Bridge, to cover the grand flanking movement on the enemy's left. When the action was brought on by the passage of the river at Sudley's Springs, Hunter's division was attacked, Sherman crossed the stream to support the advance,

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and was presently actively engaged.

The action at Bull Run was a practical comment on Sherman's advice as to the conduct of the war. A larger scale of operations was adopted, and in the new appointments which became requisite, he was, in August, commissioned Brigadier-General of Volunteers. On the organization of the Department of Kentucky, in the following month, he was ordered to report to Gen. Anderson, then at its head, and on the retirement of that officer in October became his successor. His duties were to call out the quota of the troops of the State summoned by the President, and presently to oppose the enemy, who was in force in the southern and western counties. Whilst he was marshalling his troops for this purpose, the general spirit of disaffection was gaining ground in the State. The Confederates, with vast resources in their rear, were in strength on its frontiers, and everything, to his experienced eye, portended a desperate struggle. At this time, in October, Cameron, the Secretary of War, and Adjutant-General Thomas visited the Department in a western tour of observation and inquiry. "What force do you require?" they asked of Sherman. "Sixty thousand," was his reply, "to drive the enemy out of Kentucky; two hundred thousand to finish the war in this section." The report of the interview was published; the candor, sincerity, and, as it proved, absolute correctness of the estimate, were misrepresented, and interpreted as evidence of sympathy with the rebellion, or, more charitably, to derangement of the brain of the calculator. Sherman, the most sagacious man at the time in the army, was popularly represented, in consequence of this sound arithmetical calculation, as out of his wits. The story of this delusion is worth remembering as a possible corrective or preventive of such dangerous opinions in the future. "A writer for one of the newspapers," says his biographer, Col. Bowman, "declared that Sherman was crazy. Insanity is hard to prove; harder still to disprove, especially when the suspicion rests upon a difference of opinion; and then the infirmities of great minds are always fascinating to common minds. The public seized with avidity upon the anonymous insinuation, and accepted it as an established conclusion."

It was probably in consequence of this absurdity that General Sherman, in November, was superseded in the Department of Kentucky by General Buell. He was ordered to report to Major-General Halleck, then in command of the important military Department of the West, with his headquarters at St. Louis. When Gen. Grant followed up his capture of Fort Henry in February, 1862, Gen. Sherman was stationed at Paducah, charged with sending forward reinforcements and supplies—a most important duty, which required all his energy, but giving little distinction in the theatre of war. From this employment, on the subsequent organization of the Army of the Tennessee, Sherman was called to the field in command of its Fifth Division. In the middle of March he landed with his brigades at Pittsburgh Landing, on the Tennessee river, preparatory to the

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intended movement of General Halleck with his army upon the enemy under Beauregard at Corinth. The several divisions of the Army of the Tennessee arrived soon after, and were encamped at the landing, where Gen. Grant, in command of the whole, waited the arrival of Gen. Buell with his forces from Nashville. The latter was slow in coming up, and Johnston, the Confederate commander, taking advantage of the delay, resolved upon attacking the Union army in its camp on the river before the junction was effected. Accordingly, having his troops well in hand, he made his assault in force on the morning of the 6th of April upon Sherman's front and centre at Shiloh Church, and immediately after upon other portions of the line. The battle became general; the enemy pushed on in numbers and with great vigor, determined, if possible, to drive the army into the river. His success in the early part of the day seemed to promise this result, as positions were taken, regiments broken, and defeat appeared imminent; but Sherman, compelled to retreat, fell back only to maintain a new line, and by his energy in the field in arousing the courage of his men, by his skilful dispositions, the effective management of his batteries, and the support he gave the other divisions, saved the fortunes of the day. Though severely wounded by a bullet in the left hand, he persistently kept the field and was in the thickest of the fight. General Grant, who arrived on the field after the action was advanced, testified generously to the merits of his division commander. "At the battle of Shiloh," he subsequently wrote to the War Department, "on the first day, Sherman held with raw troops the key-point of the landing. It is no disparagement to any other officer to say that I do not believe there was another division commander on the field who had the skill and experience to have done it. To his individual efforts I am indebted for the success of that battle." In the night the division of Lewis Wallace came up, Buell's army arrived, the gunboats in the river did good service in repelling and annoying the enemy, and every preparation was made to attack the enemy in turn on the morrow. General Beauregard, who had succeeded in the command to Sidney Johnston, who was slain upon the field, awaited the assault at Shiloh, after a sharp contest, was driven back, and on the afternoon of the 7th was on his retreat to Corinth. On this second day Sherman's gallantry was equally conspicuous. He had three horses shot under him, and, mounting a fourth, kept the field.

To Shiloh succeeded the gradual approach to and final capture of Corinth, in the operations attending which Sherman's division was constantly conspicuous. It was foremost in the advance, and first to enter the abandoned town. "No amount of sophistry," wrote Sherman, in his congratulatory order on the event, "no words from the leaders of the rebellion can succeed in giving the evacuation of Corinth, under the circumstances, any other title than that of a signal defeat, more humiliating to them and their cause than if we had entered the place over the dead and mangled bodies of their soldiers. We are not here to kill and slay, but to

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vindicate the honor and just authority of that government which has been bequeathed to us by our honored fathers, and to whom we would be recreant if we permitted their work to pass to our children marred and spoiled by ambitious and wicked rebels." For his success in this campaign, Sherman was appointed Major-General of Volunteers.

During the month of June, Sherman was employed in active operations in northern Mississippi, and in July, when General Grant, on the appointment of General Halleck to the chief command at Washington, succeeded that officer in the enlarged Department of the Tennessee, was sent to take charge of the city and district of Memphis, a mixed military and civil authority, which he exercised with his accustomed energy and activity, coercing the disaffected inhabitants where necessary, protecting the interests of the nation, punishing guerillas, and as far as possible causing safety and order in place of peril and confusion. It was a position of no little difficulty to adjust the proper limits of restraint; and Sherman was naturally exposed, a probable proof of his fairness, to censure from both sides. Vindicating his course to a complaining Southern lady, he subsequently wrote: "During my administration of affairs in Memphis, I know it was raised from a condition of death, gloom, and sadness to one of life and comparative prosperity. Its streets, stores, hotels, and dwellings were sad and deserted as I entered it, and when I left it life and business prevailed, and over fourteen hundred enrolled Union men paraded its streets, boldly and openly carrying the banners of our country. No citizen, Union or secesh, will deny that I acted lawfully, firmly, and fairly, and that substantial justice prevailed with even balance."

In the further operations of General Grant on the Mississippi river, he constantly relied on the high military qualities of Sherman. Vicksburg was the next important point to secure on the river. It was the key, in fact, of the Southwest. The enemy knew this, and took measures to protect it accordingly. To its capture Grant now devoted all his energies. His first attempt was planned in concert with Gen. Sherman. The latter was to embark on the river, descend to the Yazoo, and attack the Vicksburg defences directly, while Grant was to advance by land on the line of the railway to Jackson, and there secure the outlet of the city in the rear. Both of these designs failed in execution. Grant was detained by the surprise and surrender of his depot of supplies at Holly Spring, and Sherman, making good his landing on the Yazoo, after much gallant fighting in the last week of December, was compelled to turn back from the embarrassed ground and powerful defences of the enemy at the Chickasaw Bluff. As he was returning from the river in his transports, Gen. Sherman was met by Gen. McClernand, by whom he was superseded in his command. A new organization of the army, however, was presently effected, by which Sherman was placed in command of the Fifteenth Army Corps, one of the four great divisions of Gen. Grant's Army of the Tennessee.

The first attack on Vicksburg had been well planned, and was unsuccess-

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ful. It was presently redeemed by another, planned by Gen. Sherman, which was successful. This was the attack on Fort Hindman, or Arkansas Post, a well-constructed work on a bluff at an advantageous point of the Arkansas river, fifty miles from its mouth, the guardian of the central portion of the State and of the approach to Little Rock. A week after the re-embarkation on the Yazoo, on the 9th of January, 1863, the troops of Sherman and McClernand, in concert with the fleet of Admiral Porter, were in action at Arkansas Post. Sherman's dispositions were, as usual, well made, investing the fort in the rear, while its guns were silenced by the gunboats.

We now arrive at the series of important operations attending the siege and final capture of Vicksburg. The first of these with which Sherman was connected was the attempt of Admiral Porter to penetrate to the Yazoo in the rear of the formidable works at Haines' Bluff, by Steele's bayou and an inner chain of creeks and water-courses, which it was considered might be traversed by the gunboats. Sherman was to cross the swampy land with a division of his corps in support of the movement. The boats met with unexpected difficulty in the impeded course of the streams, which were obstructed by fallen trees, and occasionally so narrow as to render navigation difficult. But by perseverance these impediments were overcome, and the fleet was about to enter the Yazoo, as anticipated, when its course was arrested by a body of the enemy on land. The vessels, sorely beset by batteries, sharp-shooters, and renewed efforts to obstruct the streams, were in great peril, when they were relieved by the arrival of Sherman's advance which had made its way by forced marches, under unusual difficulties, to their rescue. The success of this enterprise would have secured an important portion of the country, rich in supplies, on the enemy's flank, and a base for further operations.

After the failure of this undertaking, Grant began in earnest his meditated approach to Vicksburg by effecting a landing below the city. To accomplish this, it was necessary to descend the Mississippi on the right bank to a point sixty or seventy miles distant from Milliken's Bend, and then cross the river to the new line of operations on the flank and rear of Vicksburg. The corps of Sherman was left to bring up the rear in the land movement of the troops, but they were not left without an object. While Grand Gulf, the first point of assault below Vicksburg, was being assailed, it was necessary, to prevent reinforcements being sent to the garrison, that the attention of the enemy should be attracted in another direction. Sherman was accordingly sent up the Yazoo to manœuvre and apparently threaten the old works at Haines' Bluff. This was skilfully performed, as directed, on the last days of April, and when this work was accomplished Sherman put his command in rapid motion on the west bank of the Mississippi, for the proposed point opposite Grand Gulf, where he crossed on the 6th of May. That place, in consequence of the engagement at Fort Gibson, and other operations, after resisting the

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first assault of the gun-boats, had been evacuated; and Sherman, in compliance with the orders of General Grant, was free to push on in support of the rapid movement of the other corps. While McPherson, the gallant commander of the Sixteenth Army Corps, was successfully engaged at Raymond on the 12th, Sherman was skirmishing at Fourteen Mile Creek. Their forces were then joined in pursuit of the enemy at Jackson, where they acted in concert in defeating and driving the enemy from the city. Sherman was ordered to destroy the railways in the vicinity, and a few days after was in motion again, in what Grant called "his almost unequalled march" from Jackson to Bridgeport, compelling the evacuation of Haines' Bluff and connecting the right of Grant's army with the Mississippi. Vicksburg was thus invested, and after two unsuccesful assaults, conducted with extraordinary valor, in which Sherman's corps bore a distinguished part, the regular siege operations here commenced which led to the surrender of the garrison and the occupation of the city on the memorable Fourth of July. Sherman was now sent in pursuit of the Confederate General Joseph E. Johnston, who had been hovering in the rear, seeking to relieve the garrison at Vicksburg. He overtook him at Jackson, drove him from the city, and again and more thoroughly destroyed the railway communications leading inland. "The siege of Vicksburg and last capture of Jackson and dispersion of Johnston's army," wrote General Grant, in his dispatch, "entitle General Sherman to more credit than usually falls to the lot of one man to earn."

Sherman acted up to his resolve. No one was more intent than himself that the military advantage of the fall of Vicksburg should not be lost, and "fulfilled all its conditions" with more indomitable perseverence. Henceforth he is the conspicuous personage in the conduct of the war in the South-west and South, and his genius is in those extensive regions from the Mississippi to the Atlantic, everywhere active and triumphant. Vicksburg having fallen, the central position of Chattanooga became the immediate point of conflict between the opposing forces. Thither, on the defeat of Rosecrans by Gen. Bragg, before that place, Sherman was summoned, in September, by Gen. Grant from his position in the rear of Vicksburg. Taking his corps by water to Memphis he set out from that place in the early days of October, on a march of unusual difficulty, passing through Corinth and Iuka, driving the enemy from Tuscombia, and crossing the Tennessee river with his forces at Eastport, and thence by forced marches pursuing his way far north of the river by Fayetteville to Bridgeport, in the immediate vicinity of the scene of action, which he reached on the 15th of November. On his march, he received at Iuka orders from General Grant assigning him to the command of the Army of the Tennessee, under the new organization by which Grant himself was placed at the head of the Military Division of the Mississippi.

Sherman's arrival at Bridgeport was the signal for Grant's decisive movements upon the enemy's positions at

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Missionary Ridge and Lookout Mountain. The leading strategic operations were entrusted to Sherman and carried out by him with his usual diligence and inventive resources. Seizing the outposts of the enemy, he promptly succeeded in getting his command across the river, and on the afternoon of November 24 surprised and occupied the extremity of the Ridge. The next day he followed up this advantage by a determined attack on the enemy's second and stronger position on the Ridge, and so maintained the struggle with the enemy, that upon the advance of Gen. Thomas upon the centre in the afternoon, the victory was complete. Sherman was now further employed in pursuing the flying foe and cutting off his railway communications with Longstreet, who had been sent to besiege Burnside at Knoxville. The latter, severely pressed, in danger of starvation, called loudly for help, and Sherman, "ever good at need," was sent by Gen. Grant to his relief. The Army of the Tennessee, after its fatiguing series of marches, and sanguinary engagements, was certainly in no condition for the extraordinary efforts required in this new expedition. But there was no time to rest or even provide for its necessities. "Seven days before," says Sherman in his report, "we had left our camps on the other side of the Tennessee, with two days' rations, without a change of clothing, stripped for the fight, with but a single blanket or coat per man, from myself to the private included. Of course, we that had no provision, save what we gathered along the road, were ill-supplied for such a march. But we learned that twelve thousand of our fellow-soldiers were beleaguered in the mountain-town of Knoxville, eighty-four miles distant, that they needed relief, and must have it in three days. This was enough; and it had to be done." And it was done: the march, notwithstanding the presence of the enemy on the route, and the serenity of mid-winter in the mountains, was accomplished between the 28th of November and the 5th of December, when, on the immediate approach of the army to the city, Longstreet having tried his strength against the works without success, retreated, and Knoxville was again in safety. General Burnside felt that he was greatly indebted to Sherman for his deliverance, and courteously acknowledged the obligation. Reviewing the entire campaign from Vicksburg to Knoxville, Gen. Sherman in his report says, "I must do justice to my command for the patience, cheerfulness and courage which officers and men have displayed throughout, in battle, on the march and in camp. For long periods, without regular rations or supplies of any kind, they have marched through mud and over rocks, sometimes barefooted, without a moment's rest. After a march of over four hundred miles, without stop for three successive nights, we crossed the Tennessee, fought our part of the battle of Chattanooga, pursued the enemy out of Tennessee, and then turned more than a hundred miles north and compelled Longstreet to raise the seige of Knoxville, which gave so much anxiety to the whole country."

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There being now necessarily an intermission of active army operations, Sherman returned for a time to the scene of his recent command at Memphis. Here he had again an opportunity, and was required to deal with the disaffected population of his military district. But he was as ready for this emergency as for any other, being quite as adroit with the pen as with the sword, as his frequent correspondence with various parties on many of the questions arising out of the war has witnessed.

The next move of Sherman was of his own planning," "the Meridian raid," or military expedition, which, crossing the centre of the State of Mississippi, in February, 1864, penetrated to the Alabama line, and did immense damage to the important railway communications on the route. Much more might have been accomplished had the whole scheme of operations been carried out. It was designed by Gen. Sherman that General W. S. Smith, of his command, starting from Memphis, should advance with about eight thousand calvary on the Mobile and Ohio railway to Meridian, where he himself, having marched due east from Vicksburg, would effect a junction with him, and act further against the Confederate forces in that region. Sherman moved with regularity, and was promptly at Meridian; but, finding that the expected calvary had not arrived, and there was no prospect of their approach, after destroying the railways and vast stores of the enemy, fell back leisurely to his former position at Vicksburg. The expedition was intended as a diversion in favor of certain projected naval operations against Mobile, which were deferred for a more favorable opportunity.

The succeeding month of March was marked by an event of great importance in the history of the war. Gen. Grant was called to Washington with the rank of Lieutenant-General, and placed in command of the armies of the United States, and on his departure for the East, Gen. Sherman was assigned to the command of the military division of the Mississippi. On receiving this order at Memphis, on the 14th of March, he hastened to join Grant at Nashville, and accompanied him as far as Cincinnati, on his way to Washington. "In a parlor of the Burnet House at Cincinnati," says Col. Bowman, "bending over their maps, the two generals, who had so long been inseparable, planned together that colossal structure whereof the great campaigns of Richmond and Atlanta were but two of the parts, and grasping one another firmly by the hand, separated, one to the east, the other to the west, each to strike at the same instant his half of the ponderous death-blow."

The Atlanta campaign of Gen. Sherman began with the concentration of his forces, numbering nearly ninety-nine thousand men and two hundred and forty-four guns in the three army divisions of the Cumberland, the Tennessee, and the Ohio, at or within supporting distance of Chattanooga. Thomas, McPherson, and Schofield were the major-generals commanding the several divisions. In front, the Confederate General Johnston, with about forty thousand infantry and four thousand cavalry held the line of the Chattanooga and Atlanta railway, with

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his head-quarters at Dalton. This was the general position at the beginning of May, when Sherman, having collected vast stores of supplies at Chattanooga, directed his army against the enemy. Atlanta, the object of the campaign, was one hundred and thirty miles from his starting-point, by a road easily to be defended at various passes and defiles. It is not necessary here to pursue the details of Sherman's masterly report of the march and the series of battles by which he made good his progress, and within three months of continuous hard fighting, at length gained his end.

Now ensued another characteristic correspondence of Sherman, with the Confederate Gen. Hood and the Mayor of Atlanta. It was necessary to hold the city which was to become the starting point of a new and decisive movement, and it was Sherman's design to make it strictly a military post. This involved the removal of the citizens who remained in it, for there was no means of support left them there, and, judging by past experience, it was difficult or impossible to prevent them from communicating with the enemy without. It was the heart of a hostile country, and strict military precaution was the only rule. Sherman accordingly proposed a ten days' truce to the Confederate Gen. Hood for the removal. Hood accepted, but denounced loudly the "studied and ungenerous cruelty of the act," protesting against it, "in the name of the God of humanity." Sherman replied by instancing the similar conduct of Johnson and of Hood himself in this very campaign, retorting upon his adversary his view of the iniquities of the war.

To the Mayor of the city, who had made a more courteous remonstrance, he replied at length, candidly stating in plain language the real grounds of the difficulty:—"You cannot," said he, "have peace and a division of our country. If the United States submits to a division now, it will not stop, but will go on till we reap the fate of Mexico, which is eternal war. The United States does and must assert its authority wherever it has power; if it relaxes one bit to pressure it is gone, and I know that such is not the national feeling. This feeling assumes various shapes, but always comes back to that of *Union.* Once admit the Union, once more acknowledge the authority of the National Government, and instead of devoting your houses and streets and roads to the dread uses of war, I, and this army become at once your protectors and supporters, shielding you from danger, let it come from what quarter it may."

When Hood, presently, in October, threatened Sherman's communications with Chattanooga, the latter again took the field in pursuit, the Confederate General retiring before him. It was now Hood's object, under instructions from Richmond, to unite with other Confederate troops in an invasion of Tennessee, with the presumption that Sherman would thus be withdrawn from Atlanta. But Sherman had no idea of being turned backward; he knew his own strength, and the weakness of the enemy; and, leaving him in his rear, to be dealt with by General Thomas, hastened to inflict a meditated blow on Georgia and South Carolina, which would demonstrate his old con-

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victions expressed in the letter to Grant, which we have recited. This was his grand march from Atlanta to Savannah, and subsequently from Savannah to Raleigh. By the middle of November the army was grouped about Atlanta. The first object of Sherman, as stated in his report, was "to place his army in the very heart of Georgia, interposing between Macon and Augusta, and obliging the enemy to divide his forces to defend not only these points, but Millen, Savannah, and Charleston." The movement was successful. By pursuing this central route, with various side movements, distracting the attention of the enemy, Savannah was captured, and the success of the campaign was established. It was about a month from the time of leaving Atlanta that Savannah surrendered. On taking possession on the 21st of December, Sherman sent this note to President Lincoln: "I beg to present you, as a Christmas gift, the city of Savannah, with one hundred and fifty heavy guns, and also about twenty-five thousand bales of cotton." Before another month had elapsed, Sherman had commenced his march through South and North Carolina. Columbia was taken, and Charleston gained by his strategy. The former surrendered on the 17th of February, 1865; on the 12th of March, the army was at Fayetteville, North Carolina, a battle with Gen. Johnston's forces was fought at Bentonville on the 19th, and Goldsboro immediately occupied. Leaving his army at that place, Sherman hastened to City Point, on the James river, where he had an interview with President Lincoln and General Grant on the 27th. The two great armies were now in supporting distance of each other. Two days after the meeting of the generals, Grant's army was in motion, the commencement of the final movement which ended on the 9th of April in the surrender of Lee's army. Sherman at the same time was pressing Johnston, who, on the 14th, proposed a capitulation. Four days after, a memorandum or basis of agreement was agreed upon between the two generals involving certain conditions of restoration to the Union of the rebel States and people, which were presently set aside for the simple terms of military surrender accorded by Grant to Lee. This act substantially closed the war for the Union. On the 4th of March, 1869, when General Grant resigned his high military rank to enter upon his duties as President, General Sherman, by act of Congress, succeeded to his position as General of the Army of the United States. In tracing Sherman's career, we have sufficiently developed his character; and here we close our record, leaving him at the height of honor and fame, to pursue his career of usefulness in the army, happily in the ordinary discharge of its duties, the object of love and admiration to his countrymen for his great services to the Nation.

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Victoria

From the original painting by Chappel, in the possession of the publishers.

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ALEXANDRINA VICTORIA.

ALEXANDRINA VICTORIA, the only child of Edward, Duke of Kent, the fourth son of George III. and of Victoire Maria Louisa, daughter of Francis, Duke of Saxe Coburg Saalfeld, was born at Kensington Palace, near London, on the 24th of May 1819. Her ancestry on the father's side may thus be traced through the succession of the House of Hanover to the Electress Sophia, the youngest of the large family of Elizabeth, Queen of Bohemia, the daughter of James I., and so upward along the line of English sovereigns. On the maternal side her lineage ascends through a direct line of Saxon ancestors, numbering twenty-five generations, to the tenth century. Passing down this long pedigree in the fifteenth century, we light upon a certain Frederick the Peaceable, Elector of Saxony, in whose family occurred an incident of interest in any history of the race of Queen Victoria. As the story has been related by Carlyle in his usual graphic manner, after his usual diligent research, it may readily, following his narrative, be here reproduced for the reader. "In those troublous times, with the constant divisions of territory going on in the family successions of the Saxon house, it was difficult even for a ruler who had earned the title of 'The Peaceable' not to have his fingers sometimes in war and marauding. This happened in the end to Frederick in a war with his brother, growing out of the settlement of a disputed territory, in which he employed a certain German mercenary leader named Kunz von Kaufungen to fight for him. Before this little military transaction got itself settled, Kunz was a loser by some very hard knocks, his 'old tower of Kaufungen and all his properties wasted by ravages of war,' and he himself taken prisoner by the Bohemians, from which he could extricate himself only by the payment of 4,000 gold gulden, about ten thousand dollars, a sufficient sum for an exhausted freebooter. He claimed this to be returned from the Elector Frederick, who would not pay, but proposed arbitration, which was partially submitted to; but Kunz, not liking the appearance of the Court, went away before the verdict was delivered, which turned out to be as unsatisfactory as he expected."

Having correspondence with a trai-

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torous cook or scullion in the Electoral Castle at Altenburg, he was informed one day of an opportunity for his threatened revenge, such as he had been long looking for. The Elector was to be absent on a journey to Leipzig, leaving the Electress with the two princes, Ernest and Albert, at home, while the servants, on a certain night, being invited to a supper in the town, would be away drinking. Kunz, accordingly, with his two Squires Mosen and Schönberg, military adventurers quartered with him, set out from Isenburg to capture the princes. Arriving with his party towards midnight of the 7th of July, 1455, before the castle, he is admitted within its walls by the faithless scullion by rope ladders; the doors of the apartments are locked by the band from the outside, and the outer portals secured, Kunz being from old residence familiar with the place. The two princes are seized, boys of the age of fourteen and twelve, and brought down to the court-yard, where Ernest is identified, and his companion proves to be, not Albert, but another youth, his bed-fellow. The mistake is soon corrected, the genuine Albert being found under his bed; and the prey being thus secured, Kunz and his freebooters take to horse, while the Electress, from a window, shrieks and pleads in vain. Take anything else, "only leave my children!" The band now divides for safety—Kunz with the younger prince, Albert, taking one direction; Mosen, with Ernest in his possession, the other, mainly through a wild forest region, to cross the border to Bohemia. They have hardly departed when the servants of the castle, having burst the doors, ring the alarm bell of the castle, which is echoed by the bell of the town, and that by others through the region. The hue and cry is fully up in Saxony, and it requires hard riding and skilful windings to escape the pursuers. But it is injustice to the reader to continue the story at this point in other language than that of Carlyle. "A hot day, and a dreadful ride through boggy wastes and intricate mountain woods; with the alarm bell, and shadow of the gallows, dogging one all the way. Here, however, we are now within an hour of the Bohemian border—cheerily, my men, through these wild woods and hills. The young Prince, a boy of twelve, declares himself dying of thirst. Kunz, not without pity, not without anxiety on that head, bids his men ride on, all but himself and two Squires shall ride on, get every thing ready at Isenburg, whither we and his young Highness will soon follow. Kunz encourages the Prince, dismounts, he and his Squires, to gather him some bilberries. Kunz is busy in that search,—when a black figure staggers in upon the scene, a grimy *Köhler*, namely Collier, (charcoal-burner), with a long poking-pole (what he calls *schürbaum*) in his hand. Grimy Collier, just awakened from his after-dinner nap, somewhat astonished to find company in these solitudes. 'How, what! Who is the young gentleman? What are my Herren pleased to be doing here?' inquired the Collier. 'Pooh, a youth who has run away from his relations; who has fallen thirsty: do you know where bilberries are?—No?—Then why not

walk on your way, my grim one?' The grim one has heard ringing of alarm-bells all day; is not quite in haste to go. Kunz, whirling round to make him go, is caught in the bushes by his spurs, falls flat on his face; the young Prince whispers eagerly, 'I am Prince Albert, and am stolen.' Whew-wew!—One of the Squires aims a blow at the Prince, so it is said, perhaps it was at the Collier only: the Collier wards with his poking-pole, strikes fiercely with his poking-pole, fells down the Squire, belabors Kunz himself. During which the Collier's dog lustily barks; and, behold, the Collier's wife comes running on the scene, and with her shrieks brings a body of other colliers upon it: Kunz is evidently done! He surrenders, with his Squires and Prince; is led by this black body-guard, armed with axes, shovels, poking-poles, to the neighboring monastery of Grünhain (Green Grove), and is there safe warded under lock and key. * * * From Grünhain Monastery, the Electress, gladdest of Saxon mothers, gets back her younger boy to Altenburg, with hope of the other: praised be heaven forever for it. 'And you, O Collier of a thousand! what is your wish; what is your want? How dared you beard such a lion as that Kunz; you with your simple poking-pole; you, Collier, sent of heaven?' 'Madam, I *drilled* him soundly with my poking-pole (*hab ihn weidlich getrillt;*') at which they all laughed, and called the Collier *der Triller, the Driller*."*

Presently, after a three days' hunt, in which his party is dismembered, Mosen, in charge of Prince Ernest, is at bay, taking refuge in a hidden cave, whence, having heard that Kunz is taken and probably beheaded, he negotiates terms of surrender, escaping scot free on delivery of the boy. So that the parents have now their two sons restored to them, and all within the week of his desperate adventure, the head of Kunz is severed from his neck at Freyberg. The Collier, or Driller, as he was thenceforth called, in compliance with his modest request, was rewarded with the privilege secured to him and his posterity, of gathering waste wood from the forest for his charring purposes, to which was added an annual grant of corn and a sufficient little farm, which appears to have been until quite recently occupied by the family, but which is now (or was in 1856) the site of a large brewery, where the best of beer could be drunk by the most loyal of Saxons in honor of the preserver of their ancient ducal line. It was in memory of the children thus rescued from captivity that, nearly three centuries afterwards, a reigning Duke of Saxe Coburg named his two sons Ernest and Albert, the latter being known to history as the Prince Consort of Queen Victoria, who is also descended, as we have stated, from this old Saxon stock.

On the death of Frederick the Peaceable, the family became divided into two great branches, named from his sons the Ernestine and the Albertine. The former, in the next generation, in the persons of Frederick the Wise and John the Stedfast, in their

* "The Prinzenraub: a Glimpse of Saxon History."—*Westminster Review*, January, 1855.

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support of Luther, became identified with the Protestant cause, which, in the contest which ensued with Charles V., cost the family the electorate of Saxony, and brought the sovereignty into the younger or Albertine line. The Ernestine branch, in its disintegrated state, then appears in possession of minor duchies and dependencies, bringing us down to Duke Francis of Saxe Coburg, whose youngest daughter, Victoire Marie Louise, was first married to the Prince of Leiningen, and afterwards to the Duke of Kent. This marriage took place in 1818; and, in the spring of the following year, there was born of the union, as we have stated, the Princess Alexandrina Victoria. Her maternal grandmother, the Dowager Duchess of Coburg, on hearing of the event, wrote to her daughter, the Duchess of Kent, already anticipating the accession of the child to the throne. "Again a Charlotte—destined, perhaps, to play a great part one day, if a brother is not born to take it out of her hands. The English like queens, and the niece of the ever-lamented, beloved Charlotte will be most dear to them." The allusion was of course to the Princess Charlotte, daughter of the Prince Regent and Caroline of Brunswick, married to Prince Leopold, whose death in child-bed, in November, 1817, had been so greatly mourned by the nation. The newly born Victoria was thus, on the death of her father and uncles, presumptive heiress to the throne. Three months afterwards, the Duchess of Coburg again writes to her daughter, announcing to her the birth of her grandchild Prince Albert, who, it seems, was assisted into the world by the same accoucheuse, Madame Siebold, who had presided at the birth of Victoria in May. "How pretty," says the Duchess in this letter, "the May Flower will be when I see it in a year's time. Siebold cannot sufficiently describe what a dear love it is." The Duke of Kent did not long survive the birth of his daughter. He died in January of the following year, and within the same week the old King George III. was released from his infirmities and gathered to his fathers.

The Princess Victoria was now left to the care of her amiable mother in the old Royal Palace of Kensington, where her early years were chiefly passed in a sort of domestic court retirement, yet with favorable influences from the great world without. As she advanced in childhood, the probability of her being called to the throne was manifestly increased. The Duke of Clarence, the immediate heir to the throne, had married the Princess Adelaide, in 1818, and had issue two daughters, both of whom died during the infancy of Victoria. The Duke of York died in 1827; and, consequently, when the now childless William IV. succeeded to George IV. in 1830, the Princess Victoria was the next heir. In anticipation of this, Parliament, in 1825, made an additional grant of six thousand pounds to the Duchess of Kent, to continue through the minority of her daughter, as a provision for her education, which now began to be a matter of some public anxiety. Able instructors were provided; and, before her twelfth year, we are told, she had, among other studies, been instructed

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in Latin, so as to read Horace with fluency. Mr. Westall, the artist, had taught her drawing; and she had exhibited an enthusiastic taste for music. She also early acquired, under the training of an eminent riding-master, an excellent skill in horsemanship. During the seven years of the reign of William IV. she became an object of personal interest to the people in many parts of the country by her visits with her mother to various seats of the nobility, and residence at the Isle of Wight, and other summer resorts.

In May, 1837, having attained her eighteenth year, she was declared legally of age, according to the provisions of a recent act of Parliament; and, on the 20th of the following month, on the demise of William IV, succeeded to the throne. The announcement of the event was made to her at Kensington Palace, by the Premier, Lord Melbourne, accompanied by other official personages. At noon she was visited by the Lord Mayor of London and other members of the corporation. The Privy Council took the oaths of allegiance and were addresed by the Queen, in words expressing her sense of the responsibility of her position, and her desire to discharge the duty for the happiness and welfare of all classes of her subjects. It was noticed that in this, as in all the circumstances of the day, she conducted herself with remarkable ease, grace, and self-possesion.

The next day the Queen attended at the Royal Palace of St. James, where she was publicly proclaimed Queen of Great Britain and Ireland, under the title of Alexandrina Victoria I. Lord Melbourne, who had always been on friendly relations with the Queen, representing as he did the liberal political views of her father, the Duke of Kent, was willingly retained by her in office as the premier. In the month of July, the Queen, with her mother, left Kensington to reside in Buckingham Palace. The same month she visited, in state, the House of Lords to dissolve parliament, in accordance with the custom at the beginning of a new reign; and again delighted those who heard her by the felicitous manner in which she read the royal speech prepared for the occasion. On the assembling of the new parliament, a suitable provision was made for the Duchess of Kent, and the Queen's civil list for salaries of household, tradesmens' bills, etc., was fixed at £385,000 per annum, and her privy purse, exclusively for her personal control, at £60,000. The coronation, at Westminster Abbey, took place on the 28th of June 1838, with the usual imposing ceremonies.

The wishes of the Queen's grandmother, the Dowager Duchess of Coburg were now to be fulfilled in the union of her grand-children. She always anticipated this, but lived only to witness the near prospect of the accession to the throne of the Princess Victoria, after the death of George IV.

The Princess Victoria saw Prince Albert for the first time, when he accompanied his father, Duke Ernest of Saxe Coburg, and his brother Ernest, on a visit to England, in 1836, and they passed four weeks together at Kensington Palace. The Princess had

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then just completed her seventeenth year. The Prince was three months younger. This was a year before the Queen came to the throne, and the visit undoubtedly had reference to the future possible union by marriage of the cousins. As such, it was opposed by the reigning sovereign William IV. who, it seems, though he never mentioned the subject to the Princess herself, was anxious to bring about an alliance between her and a member of the royal family of Holland.

The impressions, received by both parties were those of mutual admiration and regard; though nothing, for some time after, was settled concerning the important question of marriage. A limited and reserved correspondence was carried on between them. The Prince addresses her on her succeeding birthday, and in another congratulatory letter shortly after, when she became Queen—reminding her of her cousins, the Prince and his brother, who were then pursuing their university studies at Bonn. In the meantime, King Leopold of Belgium, the uncle of the parties and virtually their guardian, never lost sight of the affair of the marriage. He directed the studies and travels of Prince Albert with an eye to the result, judiciously recommending travels on the continent, in which he might be at the same time perfecting his education, and be brought in various positions before the public. The Queen, meantime, was well advised of his progress, and he sent her some memorials of his tour. At length in the early part of 1838, a year after her accession to the throne, King Leopold proposed the marriage to the Queen and the proposition seems to have been favorably entertained; and it was also discussed between King Leopold and Prince Albert, who had now become accustomed to regard it as an event to which he might look forward, and who naturally required that something definite should be determined respecting it. There was, undoubtedly, some delay in the adjustment of the affair, which was not brought to an end till, in October, 1839, Prince Albert with his brother again visited England, bearing with him a special letter from King Leopold to the Queen. It was then immediately settled.

The Princes were received on their visit to England by the Queen at Windsor Castle, where, about a week after their arrival, Prince Albert was invited to a private audience, at which the offer of her hand, according to royal requirement, was made.

The intention of making the first announcement to parliament was abandoned and an official communication to the Privy Council substituted in its stead. This took place on the 23d of November, shortly after the departure of the Princes for Coburg. At the meeting of Parliament, in January, the approaching marriage was thus announced in the royal speech, delivered by the Queen herself. "Since you were last assembled, I have declared my intention of allying myself in marriage with the Prince Albert of Saxe-Coburg and Gotha. I humbly implore that the divine blessing may prosper this union, and render it conducive to the interests of my people, as well as to my own domestic happiness; and it

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will be to me a source of the most lively satisfaction to find the resolution I have taken approved by my Parliament." The tenth of the ensuing February was appointed for the celebration of the marriage. On that day the ceremony took place with imposing state in the Chapel Royal of St. James's Palace, the Archbishop of Canterbury, assisted by the Bishop of London, officiating; her uncle, the Duke of Sussex, giving away the royal bride. A wedding breakfast followed at Buckingham Palace, attended by the members of the royal family and various state officers; and, at its close, the royal party left for Windsor Palace.

The first question of importance in the Queen's private affairs which arose was the determination of the Prince Consort's position at Court. This had been agitated in Parliament before the marriage, when it was proposed to define the precedence of the Prince by an act; but the question being a difficult one, it was left unacted upon, and thus became a subject for the Queen's prerogative. Accordingly, early in March, letters patent were issued, conferring upon the Prince precedence next to the Queen, as had been originally proposed in Parliament. In this as in all other matters growing out of their new relation, the Queen appeared desirous of placing her husband, as far as possible, in a perfectly independent position. There appears to have been some slight friction at the outset in the domestic arrangements of the household; but here, as in greater things, the self-respect and good sense of the Prince Consort were met by corresponding qualities on the part of the Queen.

The early months of the Queen's married life were happily passed in the usual routine of Court employment and the discharge of her public duties, in which she was effectively but unostentatiously assisted by the Prince Consort. He was fond of theatrical entertainments, and they attended together a series of representations at Covent Garden, in which Charles Kemble reappeared in some of Shakespeare's principal characters. They also gave much attention to musical performances, the Queen still, as she had done for several years previously, taking lessons in singing from Signor Lablache, for whom she entertained a kind regard; considering him, in her own words, "not only one of the finest bass singers, and one of the best actors, both in comedy and tragedy, that she had seen, but a remarkably clever, gentleman-like man, full of anecdotes and knowledge, and most kind and warm-hearted." In the midst of this cheerful life, an incident occurred which for a moment cast a shade upon the scene. This was an apparent attempt upon the Queen's life, as she was going out with the Prince from Buckingham Palace, the afternoon of the 10th of June, for the public drive in Hyde Park.

The perpetrator of this attempt proved to be a young man named Edward Oxford, seventeen years old, a waiter at a low inn, apparently a fool or a madman. It was a matter of doubt whether his pistols were loaded. Having nothing to say for himself, except to plead guilty, and

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there being no conceivable motive for the act, though he was convicted on his trial and sentenced to death, the sentence was set aside for imprisonment in a lunatic asylum, from which, in 1867, he was released on consideration of leaving the kingdom. There would appear to be a strange kind of fascination working upon weak minds in attempts like this, which proved only the first of several similar assaults to which the Queen has been subjected. In May, 1842, a man named John Francis fired upon her with a loaded pistol while she was driving in Hyde Park in an open carriage, for which he was tried and sentenced to be hanged; but the Queen again magnanimously interposed and commuted the sentence to transportation for life. Another fanatic named Bean, a month or so after the last-named attempt, was detected in the act of presenting a pistol at the Queen while passing along in one of her public drives, and was sentenced to eighteen months' imprisonment with hard labor. In June, 1850, she was assaulted with a cane or whip while walking in Kensington Garden by a supposed crazy man named Pate. These would all appear to have had no other incentive than an entire or partially disordered state of mind, and the frequency of such conditions led Parliament, in 1843, to pass an act, by which severe flogging was imposed as part punishment in such cases. This was thought to have put an end to such absurd attempts. But many years afterward, another case arose rivalling either of the others in absurd temerity: on the 29th of February, 1872, as the Queen was re-entering the court-yard at Buckingham Palace, after a drive through the Park, Arthur O'Connor, a Fenian, eighteen years of age, sprang over the wall, rushed up to the carriage, and struck the Queen on the breast with an unloaded pistol, at the same time presenting a petition of amnesty for the Fenians—exclaiming "sign or die." Prince Arthur, who was seated in the carriage with the Queen, knocked the man down. Connor was seized and conveyed to prison. The Queen was perfectly calm. When Connor was questioned, he said his design was to frighten the Queen into doing justice to Ireland. On examination before the Police Magistrates at Bow street, it was elicited that he was grand nephew to the well-known Feargus O'Connor, one of the leaders of the chartist movement. A commission of medical men, appointed to examine as to his sanity, found that he was of sound mind, but an enthusiastic Fenian. In explaining to the Commission why his weapon was not loaded when he made the assault, he said he would have used a loaded pistol, but he desired only to frighten the Queen into compliance with his demand. Any fatal result would have brought the Prince of Wales to the throne, an event which he did not desire to occur; wishing Queen Victoria to be the last English monarch. On his trial at the Old Bailey, in April, he pleaded guilty, with the mitigating ground of insanity. The latter was not admitted. He was committed and sentenced to twelve months hard prison labor and twenty lashes.

The public life of Queen Victoria, in

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a Constitutional country such as England, belongs rather to the history of the nation than the biography of the individual. What is more strictly personal to her is included in the story of her domestic cares, the birth, education and settlement in life of her children, and the one great event of her existence, the consecrated sorrow of many years, the death of her husband, Prince Albert.

To enumerate in order her numerous family: On November 21, 1840, the first of the Queen's children, the Princess Royal, now (1873) Crown Princess of Prussia, was born; on November 9, 1841, Albert Edward, Prince of Wales; on April 25, 1843, Alice Maud Mary; on August 6, 1844, Alfred Ernest Albert; on May 25, 1846, Helena Augusta Victoria; on March 18, 1848, Louisa Caroline Alberta; on May 1, 1850, Arthur William Patrick Albert; on April 7, 1853, Leopold George Duncan Albert; and on April 15, 1857, Beatrice Mary Victoria Feodore.

Among the more purely personal incidents of Queen Victoria's career are to be mentioned her different journeys through Great Britain—what in Queen Elizabeth's day were called "Royal Progresses;" and her occasional visits to the Continent. Of some of these we have an account from the Queen's own pen, in the volume edited by Arthur Helps, entitled "Leaves from the Journal of Our Life in the Highlands," and published chiefly in commemoration of the writer's daily life with the Prince Consort. Regarded in this light, no such touching memorial of affection has probably under similar circumstances ever been given to the world. It covers nearly the whole period of her married life, beginning with her first visit to Scotland, in company with the Prince, in the summer of 1842, and closing with a visit to the Lakes of Killarney, in the summer of 1861, a few months only before his death. The book is certainly unique in authorship—a simple record, unaffectedly truthful and artless—chronicling little details, which have all their value from the homely domestic affections of the narrator.

Happily does one of her reviewers describe the plan and spirit of the work. "These leaves," says a writer in the "Edinburgh Review," "from the private journal of the Queen, are addressed to the domestic sympathy of the people of England. They owe, no doubt, much of the interest which they will excite to the character of their august author, and to the contrast which the mind involuntarily draws between the outward splendor and formality of royalty and the incidents of daily life which are common to all sorts and conditions of men. But this real claim to the universal notice they cannot fail to receive, lies in the genuine simplicity with which the private life of the Royal Family, and the sentiments of the first Lady in the land are related in their pages. * * * Undisturbed by the glare which might blind and dazzle eyes less accustomed to live in it, the Queen of England pursues the simple avocations and amusements of woman's life; she teaches her children—she controls her servants, whose lives in every detail are familiar to her—she scratches an expressive outline on her sketch-book;

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she shares with an intense sympathy the tastes, the pursuits, the sports of her husband—and she records day by day, in pages destined at the time for no eyes but her own, the current of a life which needed not the burden or the glory of a crown to make it complete and happy. No doubt, it is the touch of grief which has unlocked those secrets of love. Men are not wont to breathe aloud the sense of their deepest enjoyments until they have lost them. Then, indeed, when the Past has received the ashes of the Present into its eternal keeping, every trifle acquires a deeper potency—a faded rose-leaf, a familiar scent, the tone of an unforgotten voice, the outline of a scene once gazed on by other eyes than our own, all acquire a perpetual meaning; and the things which were most fugitive in their brief existence become imperishable in their remains."

The notices of the Queen's residence in her Scottish retreat at Balmoral are of particular grace and feeling, covering the period from the first occupation of the place, in 1848, through successive years, while the heart of its royal occupant, in her own words, "became more fixed in this dear Paradise, and so much more so now that *all* has become my dearest Albert's *own* creation, own work, own building, own laying out, as at Osborne; and his great taste, and the impress of his dear hand, have been stamped everywhere." In view of the event which was approaching, there is something very touching in the quotation from Scott's "Lay of the Last Minstrel," which precedes these Balmoral entries:

"Land of brown heath and shaggy wood,
Land of the mountain and the flood,
Land of my sires! what mortal hand
Can e'er untie the filial band
That knits me to thy rugged strand!
Still, as I view each well-known scene,
Think what is now, and what hath been,
Seems as, to me, of all bereft,
Sole friend thy woods and streams are left;
And thus I love them better still,
Even in extremity of ill."

That "extremity" came in the autumn of 1861, when the Prince Consort, having returned in October from Balmoral, had visited the Prince of Wales, then a student at the University of Cambridge, and was passing his time in his usual employments at Windsor; though not in his usual robust health, yet freely exposing himself to the inclemencies of the season. One day, about the beginning of December, he reviewed a volunteer corps of Eton boys in a heavy rain, and left the ground suffering from a feverish cold. The symptoms gradually grew worse, and, on the thirteenth, assumed a dangerous character. The Prince was prostrated by a typhoid fever, and rapidly sank under it, dying the next day. That event has colored the whole of the Queen's later life. It has thrown her much into retirement; and when she appears in public, she seems ever to be accompanied by this great sorrow.

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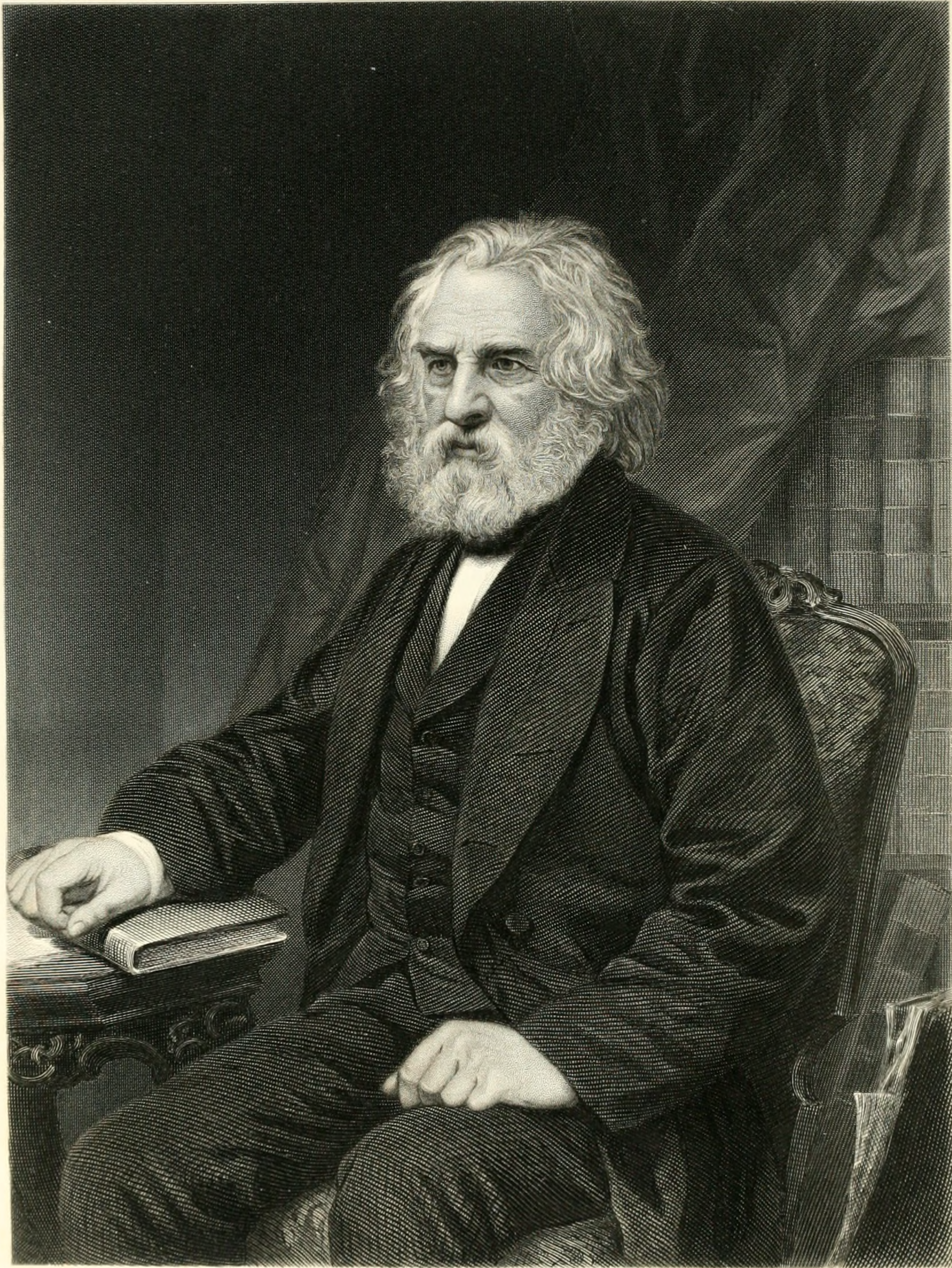

Painted by — Alonzo Chappel

Henry W. Longfellow

Likeness from a photograph from life by Sarony.

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HENRY WADSWORTH LONGFELLOW.

THE biography of a poet is, in general, little more than an inventory of his writings. He is a man whose world is within, who must have quiet to write, and whose genius tempts him to perpetuate the quiet which he finds. Seldom a man of action, his migrations are of little more importance to the world at large, save through his writings, than those of the Vicar of Wakefield, from the blue bed to the brown. Mr Longfellow, the popular poet of England and America at this time, is no exception to the rule. The incidents of his life are mainly to be found in the record of his mental emotions in his books. There is matter abundant and voluble enough, but the narrative belongs rather to the critic thant he biographer.

Henry Wadsworth Longfellow was born at Portland, Maine, February 27, 1807. His father, the Hon. Stephen Longfellow, was a lawyer of distinction, a man of influence, highly esteemed by his contemporaries. The son was sent to Bowdoin College at Brunswick, where, in due time, he graduated in the class with Nathaniel Hawthorne, in 1825. Seldom has any college in one year sent forth to the world two such ornaments of literature. At that early period, Mr. Longfellow was addicted to verse-making, and some of these juvenile poems written before the age of eighteen, are preserved in the standard collection of his writings. They are mostly descriptive of nature. There is one among them, a "Hymn of the Moravian Nuns of Bethlehem, at the Consecration of Pulaski's banner," which was something of a favorite when it appeared, and still has a flavor akin to that of the many spirited picturesque little poems of its class which the author has since written.

Most college students who are led on to pursue literature as a profession, make their entrance to it after a preliminary turn at the law. The transition is easier from that profession than from the others. The pulpit and the scalpel are apt to hold on to their apprentices, but the profitless tedium of the early years at the bar supplies a vacuum into which anything may rush. Besides, to some, especially those of a poetical inclination, the study is positively distasteful. The dereliction is embalmed as an adage in one of Pope's couplets—

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The clerk foredoomed his father's soul to cross,
Who pens a stanza when he should engross.

We are not aware that our poet had any difficulty in choosing his vocation. Probably not, for he fell so readily and happily into the habits of the scholar that all must have acquiesced in his selection of the calling. He was only nineteen, in fact, when he was appointed Professor of Modern Languages at his college at Brunswick; and, according to a judicious custom in these New England seats of learning, was granted the privilege of a preliminary tour in Europe to qualify himself handsomely for the post. In 1826, and the two following years, accordingly, he made the tour of Europe, plunging at once into the study of the various languages where they are best learned, among the natives of the country. He visited France, Spain, Italy, Germany, Holland, and England. On his return he lectured at Bowdoin on the modern languages he had acquired, wrote articles for the "North American Review," translated with great felicity the exquisite stanzas of the Spanish soldier poet Manrique on the death of his father, and penned the sketches of his travels —which, with a little romance intermingled, make up his pleasant volume, the first of his collected prose works, entitled "Outre Mer." In all that he did there was a nice hand visible, the touch of a dainty lover of good books, and appreciator of literary delicacies. The quaint, the marvellous, the remote, the picturesque, were his idols. He had been to the old curiosity shop of Europe, and brought home a stock of antiquated fancies of curious workmanship, which, with a little modern burnishing, would well bear revival. They were henceforth the decorations of his verse, the ornaments of his prose. Everywhere you will find in his writings, in his own phrase, "something to tickle the imagination" either of his own contrivance, or credited to the wit and wisdom, the marrowy conceits, of an antique worthy. From Hans Sachs to Jean Paul; from Dante to Filicaia; from Rabelais to Beranger; from old Fuller to Charles Lamb, the rare moralists and humorists were at his disposal. He was never at a loss for a happy quotation, and he who quotes well is half an original. His genius and benevolent nature, its kindly fellow worker, supplied the other half. Such was the promise of "Outre Mer," a bright, fresh, inviting book, which a man, taking up at a happy moment—and every book requires its own happy moment—would bear in mind, and look out for the next appearance of its author in print.

Then came, in 1835, one of the migrations from the blue bed to the brown—the Professor of Modern Languages at Bowdoin became Professor of Modern Languages and Literature at Harvard, in the honorable place of Mr. George Ticknor, resigned. The new appointment generated another tour in Europe, and this time the professor elect chose new ground for his travels. He visited a region then rarely traversed by Americans. He went to the north of Europe, presenting himself in Denmark and Sweden, beside a protracted stay in Holland, and a second visit to Germany, France and England—a profitable tour for studies, but a sad one to the poet's

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heart, for at Rotterdam, on this tour, he lost his young wife, the companion of his journey.

Returning to America with his intimacy with his beloved German authors refreshed by participation in their home scenes, and a newly acquired fondness for the northern sagas, destined to bear vigorous and healthy fruit in his writings, he commenced his duties at Harvard. He removed his household gods, his "midnight folios," to Cambridge, and one summer afternoon, in 1837, as it has been prettily set forth by his friend Curtis—"the Howadji," in his sketches of the Homes of American Authors—established himself as a lodger in the old Cragie house, whilom the celebrated head-quarters of General Washington in the Revolution. The house had a history; it was the very place for the brain-haunted scholar to live and dream in, a stately mansion with royalist memories before the rebel days of Washington, with flavors of good cheer lingering about its cellars, and shadowy trains of stately damsels flitting along its halls and up its wide stairway. The place was rich with traditions of wealthy merchants and costly hospitalities, nor had it degenerated, according to the habit of most honored old mansions, as it approached the present day. Venerable and learned men of Harvard, still alive, had consecrated it by their studies. No wonder that the poet professor found there his "coigne of vantage," and made there "the pendent bed and procreant cradle" of his quick-coming fancies. Many a poem of his goodly volumes has been generated by the whispers of those old walls, and thence came forth "from his still, south-eastern upper chamber, in which Washington had also slept, the most delectable of his prose writings, the romance of "Hyperion."

We well remember the impression this work made on its appearance, about 1839, with its wide-spread type and ample margin, and the pleasant kindling thoughts of love, and the beauty of nature, and old romantic glories, and quaint Jean Paul, "the only one"—its criticism of taste and the heart. It was the first specimen given to America, we believe, of the art novel, and a fit audience of youths and maidens welcomed its sweet utterances. Everything in it was choice and fragrant; the old thoughts from the cloistered books were scented anew with living fragrance from the mountains and the fields. It was a scholar's book with no odor of the musty parchment or smell of the midnight lamp. All was cheerful with the gaiety of travel; the sorrow and the pathos were tempered by the romance—and over all was the purple light of youth.

Then came, in a little volume of verse, the first collection, we believe, of the author's original poems, "The Voices of the Night," published at Cambridge in 1839. It was the greatest hit, we think, take it all together, ever made by an American poet, for it created a distinguished poetical reputation at a single blow. Its "Hymn to the Night," drawing repose

> From the cool cisterns of the midnight air;

its "Psalm of Life"—what the heart

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of the young man said to the Psalmist. "The Reaper and the Flowers," "The Light of Stars," "The Footsteps of Angels; and with others, the "Midnight Mass of the Dying Year:"—these all at once be came popular favorites, and the echoes of their praises have not yet died away from the lips of their first fair admirers. The success, doubtless, gave the poet confidence—for, to sing from the heart, the hearts of others must respond. It is a game at which there are two parties, the poet and the public, and one can do nothing without the other. The public plighted its faith to the new poet, and no meddling critics have since been able to break the alliance.

Since that first volume appeared, many others have followed in cream-colored paper and the brown cloth of Fields—sacred to poets—all of kindred excellence, Ballads with Excelsior, and the Lay of Nuremberg, and the "Belfry of Bruges," Tegner's pastoral, "Children of the Lord's Supper," Poems of the "Seaside and Fireside," "Waifs and Estrays," "The Spanish Student," a drama, in rapid sequence. Encouraged by the reception of these generally brief and occasional efforts, the poet, in 1846, essayed a longer flight in his elaborate poem "Evangeline, A Tale of Acadie." It was written in hexameters, a bold attempt upon the public in the adaptation of a classic measure, but greatly differing from the severe crabbed verses of this kind which Sir Philip Sidney sought to engraft upon English literature, and failed in attempting. The lines of Mr. Longfellow are not rugged, nor the pauses difficult to manage. On the contrary, the verse is harmonious, and, if there be any defect, cloys from its recurring cadence and uniformity. Goethe had adopted the measure in his narrative, semi-pastoral poem, "Herman and Dorothea," the treatment of which doubtless suggested "Evangeline." Beyond this sanction of a great example, the American poem was little indebted to its German predecessor. The theme was new and striking, singularly adapted to the poet's powers. All readers know the story, and all probably have admired the beauty of the descriptions, the picturesque manners and customs, the exquisite tenderness of the poem—a tale of wonderful beauty and pathos, of a rare setting in the American landscape. It is by many accounted Mr. Longfellow's happiest work, and is certainly one of the most inviting and best sustained of his compositions, felicitous alike in subject and execution.

To "Evangeline," in 1849, succeeded "Kavanagh," a tale in prose, a New England idyll. The hero is a poetical clergyman, who attracts all the beauty and refinement of the village, unless the interest which he creates is divided with the schoolmaster Churchill. There is much that is pleasant in the manner of the piece, which has a gentle humor everywhere lighted up by a poetical fancy.

The "Golden Legend," a bundle of poems tied by a silken string, carrying us into the very heart of the middle ages, was the next production of Mr. Longfellow's muse. It appeared in 1851, was well received, perhaps not as closely taken to the popular heart as "Evangeline"—but that could not

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be expected with a more remote scholastic subject. It displays a great deal of reading with much learned ingenuity. The invention, curious and felicitous, admits of and receives very wide illustration throughout the mediæval world of Europe, its religion, its arts, its schools, its government.

The "Golden Legend"—we thus chronicled it on its first appearance—is a volume of three hundred pages of poetical thoughts and fancies strung upon the thread of a simple ballad incident of a knight who grew very unhappy in the world on account of wickedness and melancholy, with no better prospect for recovery, after a pretty vigorous course of church discipline, than the luck of some maiden's offering up her life for him—a prescription of the learned Italian doctors of Salern. Such a maiden does present herself, one of his forest peasantry, and, as the prince belongs to the Rhine, and the event is to come off in Italy, a journey throughout Europe is the consequence. With constant variety, as one topic is delicately touched upon after another, we are most agreeably entertained with forest scenes, town scenes, priestly ceremonies, learned arts, the sanctities of the cloister, its profanities, quaintly narrated in a species of rhyme which is neither heroic nor common-place, but singularly in consonance with the half-earnest, half-ludicrous associations of the subject. Lucifer, *à la Mephistophiles*, is employed as a mocking spirit, inspiring evil suggestions, a delighted showman of evil scenes. Walter de Vogelweide, the Minnesinger, enters with a melodious rustling of his garments. A Mystery of the Nativity, a fine bit of scholarship of that olden time, is celebrated at Strasburg. The grim legend of Macaber is painted on the walls as the monks revel in the refectories. The School of Salern thickens with strange forms of living and dying. These are the outward circumstances and decorations of a tale of passion, the object of which is the evolution of immortal affection. The catastrophe is of course the marriage of the prince and the peasant girl, and a happy return to the hereditary castle on the Rhine.

Four years later, in 1855, the poet made another venture in a novel walk of composition. The "Song of Hiawatha," a collection of legends of the North American Indians, in trochaic octosyllabic measure, fell strangely upon American ears. The book was hardly launched, when, from every quarter of the heavens, the winds of criticism blew over the agitated literary sea upon the apparently devoted bark. Eurus and Notus, and squally Africus, rushed together and rolled their vast billows of hostile denunciation upon the publisher's counter. But propitious Venus held her guardian course aloft, and Neptune reared his placid head above the tempestuous waters. In a fortnight the loud blast of the critics was reduced to a piping treble; indignation subsided to laughter, and laughter gave place to an old knack of affection, which the public has always shown for its favorite. The only crime of Hiawatha was its novelty, its originality. The olive was liked after it was tasted. The legends once read, were read again, and the trochaics were echoed in a thousand parodies. The

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story of the reception of the book is one of the curiosities of American literature.

The materials of the volume were rescued from the Dryasdusts and antiquarians, like Tennyson's legends of King Arthur's Court, to be preserved in a gallery of enduring beauty. The task of the American writer was the more difficult of the two, in the apparent intractability of the subject. The fancies of the American savage, painted on the mists of their meadows, and in the shadows of their forests, have a vagueness and unreality, too slight and vanishing even for verse. These wild, airy nothings were hardly food substantial enough for a poet's dream. To catch and cage them in verse was a master's triumph.

"The Courtship of Miles Standish," published in 1858, followed. It is a return to the measure, the tilting hexameters, of "Evangeline," celebrating an anecdote of love and beauty with the moral of a grim old suitor employing youth in his service as an agent to entrap for him the gentle heart of womanhood. The warrior achieved many triumphs in his day over rebels and Indians, but, stern Achilles as he was, he had to yield his lovely Briseis.

Fair Priscilla, the Puritan girl, in the solitude of the forest,
Making the humble house and the modest apparel of home-spun
Beautiful with her beauty, and rich with the wealth of her being,
Was not for him, but for John Alden, the fair-haired taciturn stripling.

That is the whole moral, and quaintly and picturesquely is it set forth in the historic costume of the period of the Pilgrim Fathers.

These, with the addition of a collection of translations by others of "The Poets and Poetry of Europe," a few "Poems on Slavery," dated 1842; "The Wayside Inn," a group of New England stories in verse; "The Divine Tragedy," a version of the Gospel narrative somewhat in the style of the "Golden Legend," favored or suggested by the representation of the Oberammergau Passion Play; and an admirably faithful poetical translation of the Divine Comedy of Dante, a work which is an honor to American literature, embrace, we believe, the chief of Mr. Longfellow's acknowledged writings to the present time. The same general characteristics run through them: a learned, exuberant fancy, prodigal of imagery; a taste for all that is delicate and refined, pure and elevated in nature and art; a skilful adaptation of old world sentiment to new world incidents and impressions; a heightened religious fervor as his muse transcends things temporal, and reaches forward to the things which are eternal. The gentle ministry of poetry, fertile in consolation, has seldom soothed human sorrow in more winning, pathetic tones than have fallen from the lips of this amiable bard, ever delighting and instructing his race.

It is now some years since Mr. Longfellow resigned his professorship at Harvard, to be succeeded by another disciple of the muses, the accomplished poet Lowell; but he still continues to breathe the old atmosphere in the house of Washington, cheered amid the trials of life by the affections of his countrymen, and of those who read the English language throughout the world.

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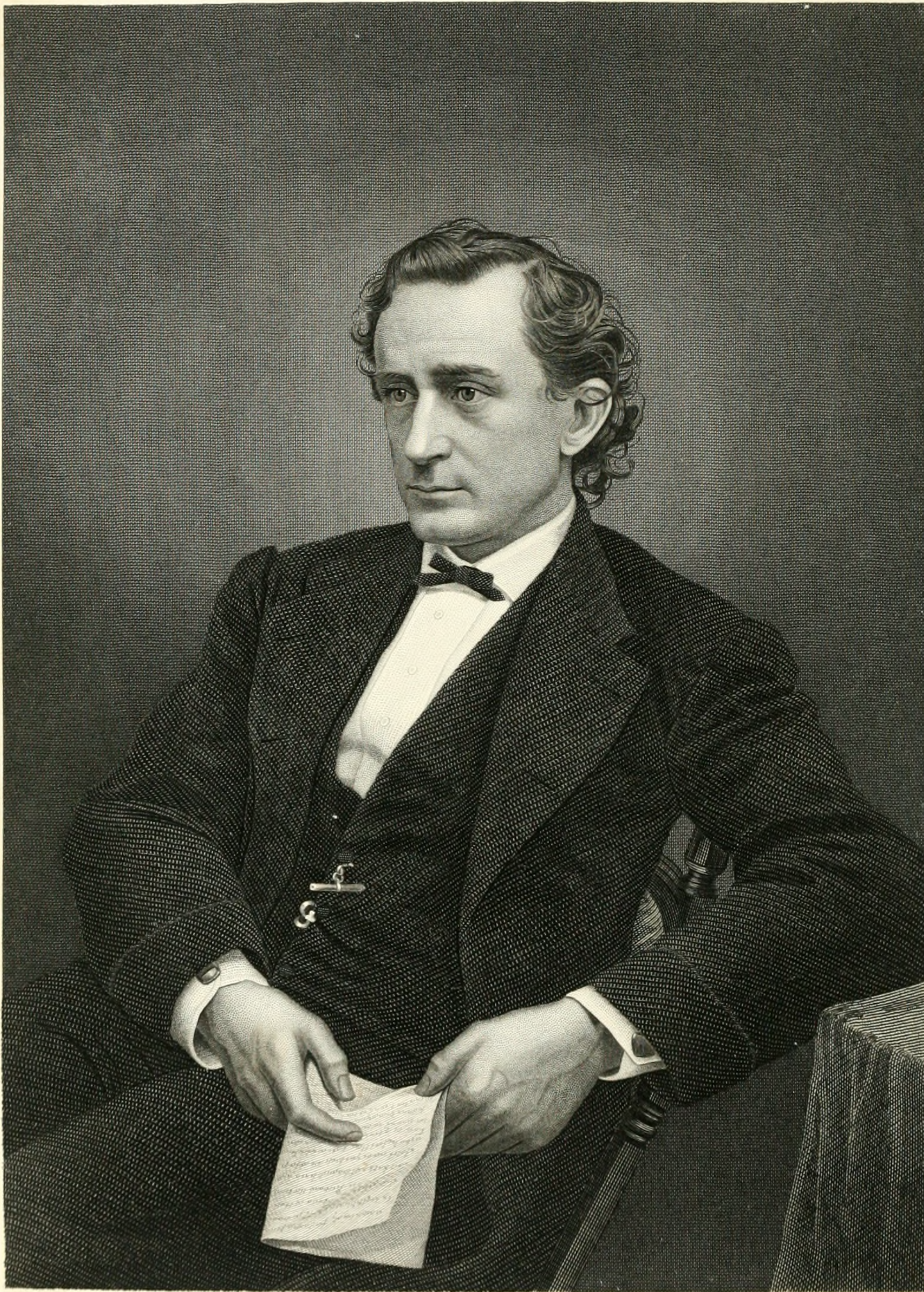

Likeness from an original painting from life.

Johnson Wilson & Co. Publishers, New York.

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EDWIN BOOTH.

THIS eminent tragedian, the son of the celebrated English actor, Junius Brutus Booth, by his third wife, an American lady, was born at his father's country residence at Baltimore, Maryland, in November, 1833. The reputation of the elder Booth has been somewhat marred by the blending of a certain eccentricity with his genius, and the intemperance which, as in the case of George Frederick Cooke, often came to disappoint the public in his theatrical engagements. But, apart from this failing, which was the peculiar temptation of his day and profession, his merits as an actor in the higher walks of his profession were unquestioned. Born of a good English family, his father being a solicitor, and his mother related to the champion of the popular cause, the memorable political agitator John Wilkes, after whom he named one of his sons, of unhappy fame. Junius Brutus Booth, after some discursive attempts in early life in the navy, and as a printer and artist, entered on the stage as a profession at the age of seventeen. After several years passed in a wandering life, passing from theatre to theatre on the continent and in the provinces, the repute of his acting in tragic parts at Brighton led, in 1817, to his engagement in London, at Covent Garden. Kean was then in the ascendant, at the height of his fame, playing his round of characters at Drury Lane; and it made some stir among the critics when Booth was brought forward at the rival theatre in the popular favorite's great character of Richard III. Though under many disadvantages under such circumstances, Booth fairly held his own in the comparison, and further proved his mettle under a new managerial arrangement, which was speedily brought about in his appearance, side by side with Kean, in Othello, at Drury Lane. In this performance, Booth took the part of Iago, and Hazlitt, who, in his passionate admiration for Kean, had disparaged his rival's previous acting, admitted that the two "hunted very well in couple." These eminent performers, akin in the fiery, impulsive quality of their genius were, however, ill-adapted to work long together; and the joint appearance in Othello was almost instantly followed by Booth's return to Covent Garden, where he established his reputation in Sir Giles

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Overreach, Sir Edward Mortimer, and other important tragic representations, to which he subsequently added King Lear, in which he achieved a splendid success. In 1821, he came to America, acting for the first time at Richmond, Virginia, in Richard III., and immediately after commencing an engagement at the Park Theatre, in New York, in the same character, followed by personations of Octavian, Brutus, Lear, Othello, Hamlet, and Jerry Sneak; for, like Kean, he had a taste for farce, though his genius for the stage was essentially tragic. Henceforth, though he again visited London, his home was in America. He acted from time to time at all the chief theatres of the Union, from Boston to New Orleans; and, though towards the end, with faculties much impaired by his irregularities, seldom without giving evidence of his fine original powers. He possessed many accomplishments, speaking various modern languages fluently. At New Orleans, where he had many admirers, he appeared at its French Theatre, and acted the part of Orestes in the original, in Racine's "Andromaque," with eminent success. There is a record, such as is seldom preserved of any actor, in a remarkable analysis of his performances, in a volume entitled "The Tragedian; an Essay on the Histrionic Genius of Junius Brutus Booth," by Thomas R. Gould, who, in 1868, dedicates the book "To Edwin Booth, whose rare good gifts have already won for him the undivided admiration and respect of his countrymen." Mr. Gould, in his work, dwells particularly upon the delicacy of the elder Booth's acting, which he traces through many of his striking performances. In another notice of him in Mr. Brown's "American Stage," some of his peculiarities are noted, which, though perhaps of the class of oddities, indicate a certain refinement and sensibility—qualities, indeed, without the possession of which it would be impossible to be a worthy Shakespearian actor. "In his family," we are told, "he prohibited the use of animal food; animal life was sacred on his farm, and the trees never felled by the axe. All forms of religion, and all temples of devotion were sacred to him; and, in passing churches, he never failed to bow his head reverently."

His son Edwin was early trained for the theatrical profession. He was, we are told in an appreciative article by Mr. Stedman, "the chosen companion of his father in the latter's tours throughout the United States, and was regarded by the old actor with a strange mixture of repulsion and sympathy—the one evinced in lack of outward affection and encouragement, the other in a silent but undoubted appreciation of the son's promise. The boy, in turn, so fully understood the father's temperament, that a bond existed between the two. Whether to keep Edwin from the stage, or in caprice, the elder Booth at first rarely permitted the younger to see him act; but the son, attending the father to the theatre, would sit in the wings for hours, listening to the play, and having all its parts so indelibly impressed on his memory as to astonish his brother actors in later years."*

* "Atlantic Monthly," May, 1866.

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At the age of fifteen, in September, 1849, as stated by Mr. Brown, Edwin made his *debût* as Tressel in "Richard III.," at the Museum, Boston, Massachusetts. In May, 1850, he appeared for his father's benefit, in Philadelphia, at the Arch Street Theatre, as Wilford in "The Iron Chest." Mr. Ireland, in his "Records of the New York Stage," chronicles his appearance in the same character, on a similar occasion, at the Chatham Street National Theatre, with his father's Sir Edward Mortimer, in September of that year at the Park Theatre; subsequently, during the same engagement of the elder Booth, appearing as Hemeya to his Pescara. Junius Brutus Booth died about two years after, in November, 1852, while journeying on a steamboat from New Orleans to Cincinnati.

We have no further notice of Edwin Booth's performance in New York for some years, when, in May, 1857, after a tour through California, which was extended to Australia, he made his appearance at Burton's Theatre, in the character of Richard III. He was well received and his reputation at once established. During this engagement, he acted in a large number of parts, as enumerated by Mr. Ireland, including Richelieu, Sir Giles Overreach, Shylock, Lear, Romeo, Hamlet, Claude Melnotte, Iago, Sir Edward Mortimer, and Petruchio. Since that time he has been universally recognized as a performer of eminent ability in the higher walks of the drama. In 1860, he was married to Miss Mary Devlin, an amiable young actress, whose early death, in 1863, was much lamented. Mr. Booth visited England in 1861, and acted the part of Shylock in London. After a period of retirement, consequent upon the death of his wife, he returned to the stage, and commenced at the Winter Garden Theatre, in New York, a series of Shakespearian revivals, among which his Hamlet was greatly distinguished. Producing this play on the 28th of November, 1864, he acted the part of Hamlet for one hundred consecutive nights, an utterly unprecedented feat in the annals of the stage. The destruction of the theatre by fire in the spring of 1867, led to the construction of the present noble edifice, "Booth's Theatre," in the city, which was opened for the first time in 1870, with the revival of Romeo and Juliet, Mr. Booth taking the part of Romeo, and Juliet being acted by Miss Mary McVicker. Other Shakespearian revivals of extraordinary splendor have followed at this theatre—Hamlet, The Winter's Tale, Richard III., and Julius Cæsar, among them, in which Mr. Booth has sustained the leading parts. At the close of the season in 1873, Mr. Booth retired from the management of the theatre. Mr. Stedman, in the article already cited, after a sketch of the person of the elder Booth, thus notices the physical appearance of his son. "Here," says he, "is something of the classic outline and much of the Greek sensuousness of the father's countenance, but each softened and strengthened by the repose of logical thought, and interfused with the serene spirit which lifts the man of feeling so far above the child of passion unrestrained. The forehead is higher, rising towards the region of the moral sentiments; the

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face is long and oval, such as Ary Scheffer loved to draw; the chin short in height, but from the ear downward lengthening its distinct and graceful curve. The head is of the most refined and thorough-bred Etruscan type, with dark hair thrown backwards, and flowing student-wise; the complexion pale and striking. The eyes are black and luminous, the pupils contrasting sharply with the balls in which they are set. If the profile and forehead evince taste and a balanced mind, it is the hair and complexion, and, above all, those remarkable eyes—deep-searching, seen and seeing from afar, that reveal the passions of the father in their heights and depths of power. The form is taller than that of either the elder Booth or Kean, lithe, and disposed in symmetry; with broad shoulders, slender hips, and comely tapering limbs, all supple, and knit together with harmonious grace. We have mentioned personal fitness as a chief badge of the actor's peerage, and it is of one of the born nobility that we have to speak. Amongst those who have few bodily disadvantages to overcome, and who, it would seem, should glide into an assured position more easily than others climb, we may include our foremost American tragedian—Edwin Thomas Booth."

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Eugenie

Likeness by Winterholter, taken shortly after her marriage with Napoleon.

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EMPRESS EUGENIE.

EUGENIE-MARIE DE GUZMAN, Countess of Teba, was born in Granada, Spain, on the 5th of May, 1826. In her ancestry, the Scottish and Spanish races were blended. Following an account of the family, which was published at the time of her marriage to the Emperor Napoleon, we learn that her great grandfather on the maternal side, Mr. Kirkpatrick, of Conheath, Dumfriesshire, Scotland, was a gentleman of large landed property in right of his father, and that he was married to a Miss Wilson, of Kelton Castle, in Galloway. His son, William Kirkpatrick, went early in life to Malaga, in Spain, where he was British Consul for many years, and where he married the only daughter of Baron Grevennee. Of three daughters by this marriage, the eldest, Donna Maria Manuela, was married to the Count de Montijo, a member of one of the most ancient of the noble houses of Spain. He fought bravely under the standard of France, as Colonel of Artillery in the Peninsular war. At the battle of Salamanca, he lost an eye and had his leg fractured. When the French army were driven out from the Peninsula, the Count accompanied them in their retreat, and continued to serve in the French army. He was decorated by the Emperor Napoleon for the courage he displayed in the campaign of 1814. When the allies marched upon Paris in that year, Napoleon confided to the Count the task of tracing out the fortifications of the capital, and placed him at the head of the pupils of the Polytechnic School, with the mission to defend the Buttes de St. Chaumont. In the execution of this duty, he fired, it is said, the last guns which were discharged before Paris in 1814. He died in 1839, when his daughter Eugenie was twelve years old.*

In a reminiscence of the family in Spain, extending over many years, Washington Irving, in his published correspondence, thus writes to a member of his family, when Eugenie had come into celebrity by her alliance with the Emperor. "I believe I have told you that I knew the grandfather of the Empress—old Mr. Kirkpatrick, who had been American Consul at Malaga. I passed an evening at his house in 1827, near Adra, on the coast of the Mediterranean. A week or two

* "Illustrated London News," Jan. 29, 1853.

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after, I was at the house of his son-in-law, the Count Téba, at Granada—a gallant, intelligent gentleman, much cut up in the wars, having lost an eye, and been maimed in a leg and hand. His wife, the daughter of Mr. Kirkpatrick, was absent, but he had a family of little girls, mere children, about him. The youngest of these must have been the present Empress. Several years afterward, when I had recently taken up my abode in Madrid, I was invited to a grand ball at the house of the Countess Montijo, one of the leaders of the *ton*. On making my bow to her, I was surprised at being received by her with the warmth and eagerness of an old friend. She claimed me as the friend of her late husband, the Count Téba, subsequently Marquis Montijo, who, she said, had often spoken of me with the greatest regard. She took me into another room, and showed me a miniature of the Count, such as I had known him, with a black patch over one eye. She subsequently introduced me to the little girls I had known at Granada—now fashionable belles at Madrid. After this I was frequently at her house, which was one of the gayest in the capital. The Countess and her daughters all spoke English. The eldest daughter was married while I was in Madrid to the Duke of Alva and Berwick, the lineal successor to the pretender to the British crown."

In another letter, dated Madrid, March, 1844, when Irving was minister to Spain, he gives a particular notice of this marriage of the sister of Eugenie to the descendant of James II. "I was," he writes, "a few mornings since, on a visit to the Duchess of Berwick. She is the widow of a grandee of Spain, who claimed some kind of descent from the royal line of the Stuarts. She is of immense wealth, and resides in the most beautiful palace in Madrid, excepting the royal one. I passed up a splendid staircase, and through halls and saloons without number, all magnificently furnished, and hung with pictures and family portraits. This Duchess was an Italian by birth, and brought up in the royal family at Naples. She is the very head of fashion here. * * * A grand wedding took place, shortly since, between the eldest son of the Duchess, the present Duke of Alva, about twenty-two years of age, and the daughter of the Countess of Montijo, another very rich grandee. The *corbeille*, or wedding presents of the bride, amounted to one hundred and twenty thousand dollars, all in finery. There were lace handkerchiefs worth a hundred or two dollars, only to look at; and dresses, the very sight of which made several young ladies quite ill. The young Duchess is thought to be one of the happiest and best-dressed young ladies in the whole world. She is already quite hated in the *beau monde.*"

The display and admiration of this distinguished marriage may have stimulated the younger sister Eugenie in her efforts to secure attention. She was possessed of a natural vivacity, with manners extremely winning; a fair complexion and animated look, and generally attractive beauty of appearance. The family usually quitting Madrid during the hot season, for

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a residence at one of the watering places in the south of France, and her winters being sometimes passed in Paris, she became, as she grew up, familiar with the social life of that country. In 1851, the Countess Téba, as she was called, made a lengthened visit at the capital with her mother, the Countess Dowager de Montijos, and was distinguished at the court entertainments given at the Tuileries. She was admired by Napoleon, and, immediately after the restoration of the Empire, he declared, on the 22d of January, 1853, his intention of marriage to the Senate in the following address: "In announcing to you my marriage, I yield to the wish so often manifested by the country. * * * She who has been the object of my preference is of princely descent. French in heart, by education, and the recollection of the blood shed by her father in the cause of the Empire, she has, as a Spaniard, the advantage of not having in France a family to whom it might be necessary to give honors and fortune. Endowed with all the qualities of the mind, she will be the ornament of the throne. In the day of danger, she would be one of its courageous supporters. A Catholic, she will address to Heaven the same prayers with me for the happiness of France. In fine, by her grace and her goodness, she will, I firmly hope, endeavor to revive, in the same position, the virtues of the Empress Josephine. I come then, gentlemen, to announce that I have preferred the woman whom I love and whom I respect, to one who is unknown, and whose alliance would have had advantages mingled with sacrifices. Without despising any one, I yet yield to my inclinations, after having taken counsel with my reason and my convictions. In fine, by practicing independence, the qualities of the heart, domestic happiness, above dynastic prejudices and the calculations of ambition, I shall not be less strong because I shall be more free. Proceeding immediately to Nôtre Dame, I shall present the Empress to the people and to the army. The confidence which they have in me assures me of their sympathy; and you, gentlemen, in better knowing her whom I have chosen, will agree that, on this occasion, as on some others, I have been inspired by Providence."

Extraordinary preparations were made for the celebration of the nuptials. The civil marriage, on the eve of the religious ceremony, was performed with great state in the Salle des Marechaux, in the palace of the Tuileries, in the midst of a grand company of those official personages with whom the new Empire was already invested, gentlemen ushers, masters of ceremonies, equerries, the grand chamberlain, with marshals and admirals, ministers, secretaries of state, the cardinals, the princes and princesses of the Imperial family, their officers and attendants. After the ceremony, refreshments were handed round, when the whole of the company adjourned to the theatre to listen to a cantata celebrating the alliance, composed by the court poet, M. Mery, the music composed by M. Robert, the chants sung by M. Roger and Madame Tedesco. After this, the Empress and her suite were conducted by a detach-

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ment of cavalry to her temporary residence at the palace of the Elysée. The Emperor had his residence at the Tuileries. The next day, appointed for the religious ceremony at Nôtre Dame, was Sunday. There was a grand procession, and all Paris was early astir to witness it. Unprecedented prices had been given for windows in good situations along the route, from the palace of the Elysée, whence the Empress was to be conducted to the Tuileries, and thence, in company with the Emperor, proceed to the Cathedral. The streets throughout were lined by the national guard on one side, the troops of the line on the other—infantry ; cavalry forming the whole of the military procession. Vast numbers of deputations of the trades and work-people, with flags and banners, conspicuous among which were the butchers, fishmongers, and others, the representatives of the Halles et Marchés, with a band of two hundred veterans from the Hotel des Invalides, assembled at the garden of the Tuileries. The crowd of spectators was immense.

At eleven o'clock, the Empress, with her mother and suite, left the Elysée for the Tuileries; and at noon, heralded by the firing of cannon, the grand procession began to move, the Emperor and Empress having first shown themselves from a window of the palace. After a few squadrons of regular cavalry, the whole of the mounted national guard, a vast number of staff officers, military intendants and functionaries, and two bands of music had passed, there came an imperial cortege of six carriages—old state carriages used on former occasions of high ceremony, and which had been preserved at Versailles —in the foremost of which were gathered the ministers of State, the grand officers of the imperial household, and other dignitaries preceding the mother of the bride and Prince Jerome and his son, Napoleon. The imperial carriage then followed—the same, it was said, that had conveyed the first Napoleon to his coronation, occupied by the Emperor and Empress only.

The ladies who occupied the places of distinction in the ceremony, representing the families of the Emperor and Empress, were the Princess Mathilde and the bride's mother, Madame de Montijo, with the ladies of honor and other court companions—all dressed in the brightest colors of the most costly material. Among the clergy in attendance by the altar, not the least conspicuous part of the show were five cardinals in the Roman purple. The chief part was borne by the Archbishop of Paris, who presented to the Imperial pair, on their arrival, a morsel of the True Cross to kiss, with holy water and incense, while four ecclesiastics held a rich dais over the couple as the procession advanced up the church. The religious ceremony then proceeded with the usual elaborate rites, performed with every artifice of State, followed by the mass, the final benediction and the signatures in the register. The procession was then re-formed, and returned in the order in which it had arrived, following the line by the Seine to the Tuileries. In the afternoon, the Emperor and Empres set out for St. Cloud.

Receiving from a relative in Paris notice of these imposing ceremonies,

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Washington Irving, who was then at his home of Sunnyside, on the Hudson, thus replied: "A letter received from you while I was at Washington, gave an account of the marriage procession of Louis Napoleon and his bride to the Church of Nôtre Dame, which you saw from a window near the Hotel de Ville. One of your recent letters, I am told, speaks of your having been presented to the Empress. Louis Napoleon and Eugenie Montijo, Emperor and Empress of France!—one of whom I have had a guest at my cottage on the Hudson; the other, whom, when a child, I have had on my knee at Granada. It seems to cap the climax of the strange dramas of which Paris has been the theatre during my lifetime. I have repeatedly thought that each grand *coup-de-theâtre* would be the last that would occur in my time; but each has been succeeded by another equally striking; and what will be the next, who can conjecture? The last I saw of Eugenie Montijo, she was one of the reigning belles of Madrid; and she and her giddy circle had swept away my charming young friend, the beautiful and accomplished ———, with their career of fashionable dissipation. Now Eugenie is upon a throne, and ——— a voluntary recluse in a convent of one of the most rigorous orders. Poor ———! Perhaps, however, her fate may ultimately be the happiest of the two. 'The storm,' with her, is 'o'er, and she's at rest;' but the other is launched upon a returnless shore, on a dangerous sea, infamous for its tremendous shipwrecks. Am I to live to see the catastrophe of her career, and the end of this suddenly conjured-up empire, which seems to be of 'such stuff as dreams are made of?' I confess my personal acquaintance with the individuals who figure in this historical romance, gives me an uncommon interest in it; but I consider it stamped with danger and instability, and as liable to extravagant vicissitudes as one of Dumas's novels. You do right to witness the grand features of the passing pageant. You are probably reading one of the most peculiar and eventful pages of history, and may live to look back upon it as a romantic tale." The letter, read by the light of subsequent events, has proved a remarkable one. Irving did not indeed live to see the termination of the wondrous spectacle, or the unutterable woes which attended it, but with what prescience did he foreshadow the end!

From the first, Eugenie was popular in France. A well-directed act of generosity at the time of her marriage, gained for her the regard of the people. The municipality of the city of Paris had voted her a diamond necklace of the value of six hundred thousand francs, as a marriage present. In reply to the municipal delegation which had waited upon her to announce the resolution, she answered that, while she felt gratified at this mark of favor, the jewels belonging to the Crown were more than sufficient for her requirements, and with the consent of the Emperor, she would suggest that the whole sum proposed to be invested in the diamonds, should be applied to the relief of the distressed poor of the city of Paris. Frequently on other occasions, during her reign,

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she showed a tender regard to the suffering, in visiting hospitals, and other acts of personal sympathy. Her life was now passed in the routine of the court, in the imperial residences at the Tuileries and St. Cloud, and other palaces belonging to the nation, with frequent summer visits to her favorite sea-side resort at Biarritz, on the border of Spain. In 1855, she accompanied the Emperor in a visit to Queen Victoria, which was shortly after returned at Paris. On the 16th of March, 1856, she gave birth to a son, the Prince Imperial, Napoleon Eugene Louis Jean Joseph. In 1861, she visited England and Scotland, and in 1864, some of the German baths. Accompanied by the Emperor, she visited the patients of the Cholera Hospitals in Paris, when the city was visited by the pestilence in 1865. In 1869, she was present as the representative of France at the ceremonies attending the opening of the Suez Canal, the success of which had been greatly promoted by the Emperor. She was, of course, received with the honors due her exalted station by the ruler of Egypt, and the Sultan of Turkey gave her a magnificent reception at Constantinople. A few months after this imposing celebration, came the stirring events of the war between France and Prussia. On taking the field in July, 1871, the Emperor left the Empress as regent of the Empire, and when the imperial armies met with rapid reverses, and Napoleon surrendered a prisoner of war at Sedan, there was full opportunity for her powers being called in requisition. But the disaster was too great to be sustained by the government. The overthrow of the Empire was decreed by the legislature, and the Empress was overwhelmed by the storm. An effort, if possible, would have been made by her to sustain the imperial dynasty; but she was compelled to yield to the new order of things. So great appeared her danger, that she left the palace of the Tuileries in disguise, and escaped from the country by the railway train to Belgium. Residing with her son, the Prince Imperial, in England, who as the contest grew hotter, had been placed out of the reach of danger, she awaited the arrival of her husband, who landed on those shores again an exile, at the conclusion of the fatal war which he had provoked, and in which the glories of his artificial Empire had perished in an instant. The unsubstantial pageant had dissolved amid the flames of a revolution, and the anticipation of Washington Irving, the student of history and life, had been fulfilled. It was a short interval between the dethronement of the Emperor and his death, in January, 1873. This period was passed by the ex-Empress with her husband, at Chiselhurst, in Kent, and after his death she continued her residence in England, receiving distinguished attentions from the Queen and others in high station.

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Henry Ward Beecher

Likeness from an approved photograph from life.

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HENRY WARD BEECHER.

IN the biography of Harriet Beecher Stowe, we have traced the early American descent of the Beecher family, and have given an account of the career of the Rev, Lyman Beecher, the father of the subject of the present notice by his marriage with Roxana Foote.

Henry Ward Beecher was born at Litchfield, Connecticut, where his father was engaged in pastoral duties, on the twenty-fourth of June, 1813. His mother died when he was three years old, and his father having married again, removed to Boston, where Henry was placed in the Latin school of that city. Having little taste for the classics, and a strong desire to follow the sea as a profession, his father suggested that he should prepare himself for the Navy. For this purpose he was sent to school at Amherst, his father remarking on his departure, "I shall have that boy in the ministry yet." Here he labored perseveringly to prepare himself for the Navy, and also studied elocution under Professor John E. Lowell. But at the end of the year he took part in a religious revival, which induced him to abandon all thoughts of the Navy and turn his attention to the ministry.

On entering Amherst College, he started as a reformer, opposing all the customary irregularities and dissipations of the students, never using himself, either tobacco or ardent spirits in any shape. He was graduated in 1834, and entered upon the study of theology at the Lane Theological Seminary, of which his father was president. Previous to completing his studies, he edited, in the absence of Dr. Brainard, the organ of the New School Presbyterian Church. His articles against the anti-slavery riots, and the destruction of Dr. Burney's press at that time commanded attention from their fearless tone and spirit.

On the completion of his studies, Mr. Beecher married, and took charge of a Presbyterian Congregation at Lawrenceburg, Indiana. In 1839, he was called to Indianopolis, in the same State, where he remained some eight years, performing a great amount of professional labor, and causing, it is said, some remarkable revivals. In August, 1847, he was called to take charge of the Congregational Plymouth Church, at Brooklyn, New York. On the 19th of September he took leave

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of his Indiana charge, and on entering on his duties at Brooklyn, informed his congregation and "all whom it might concern, that he considered temperance and anti-slavery a part of the gospel which he was determined to preach."

"His oratory," writes the author of the "Cyclopædia of American Literature," "ranging from the usual themes of moral and theological discussion, over the vast field of social and political reforms, with frequent reference to negro slavery, and the national agitations which have grown out of this question, has given his pulpit a wide celebrity. This influence, exerted upon an always crowded congregation, drawn from the populations of Brooklyn and New York, and the throng of visitors from all parts of the country, constantly assembling in these large cities, have been still further greatly extended by the preacher's popularity as a public lecturer. He is also in the enjoyment of an extensive reputation through his contributions to the religous press, chiefly the "Independent" newspaper of New York, a journal of which he was one of the founders.

"Mr. Beecher was an extremely active and energetic advocate of the free State cause in Kansas, and on the subsequent breaking out of the rebellion, Plymouth Church, at his instance, raised a regiment in which his eldest son was an officer. In 1862, he visited England, and rendered an important service to the country by his eloquent vindication of the policy of the American government in the war which it was maintaining for the preservation of the Union; and as the war was approaching its conclusion in April, 1865, Mr. Beecher, at the request of the government, delivered an oration at Fort Sumter, on the anniversary of its fall, and the formal restoration of the National Flag by Major Anderson.

"The first published volume of his writings, bearing the title "Lectures on various important subjects," such as idleness, dishonesty, gambling, dissipation, popular amusements, was printed at Indianapolis, Indiana. Several scores of thousands of this work have been published in America, and there have been two reprints of it in England. In 1855, appeared a volume entitled "Star Papers; or, Experiences of Art and Nature," being collections of articles from the "Independent, originally signed with a star. A second series of these contributions has been issued, called, "New Star Papers; or, Views and Experiences of Religious Subjects," which has been republished in England with the title "Summer in the Soul." These productions are marked by an easy, familiar tone, eloquent and often poetic, with a practical knowledge of life, its duties and its privileges, which is the secret of much of their interest. Following the Star Papers, came two volumes of fragments taken down from extemporaneous discourses at the Plymouth Church. They were prepared by the ladies of the congregation; the first, by Miss Edna Dean Procter, having the title "Life Thoughts"; the second, by Miss Augusta Moore, called "Notes from Plymouth Pulpit." Both of these works have had a large circulation in America, and have been

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republished in England. A few disconnected sentences from the latter will indicate something of the spirit and style of those happy sayings in the pulpit which have doubtless greatly assisted the preacher's popularity: "She was a woman, and by so much nearer to God as that makes one." "A man's religion is not a thing made in Heaven, and then let down and shoved into him. It is his own conduct and life. A man has no more religion than he acts out in his life." "When men complain to me of low spirits, I tell them to take care of their health, to trust in the Lord, and to do good as a cure." "Men are not put into this world to be everlastingly fiddled on by the fingers of joy."

"Besides these "beauties" of Mr. Beecher's discourses, an extensive series of the sermons has appeared in a regular weekly report of them taken from his lips morning and evening, at the Plymouth Church, and published, the one in New York, the other in Boston, respectively in the columns of the "Independent" and the "Traveller."

"There is another volume of Mr. Beecher's writings, made up from a series of early articles, contributed to a newspaper in Indiana, the "Western Farmer and Guardian." It relates to horticultural topics, and bears the title "Plain and Pleasant Talk about Fruits, Flowers, and Farming." The papers, the author tells us, were first suggested by the multifarious discussions on these subjects to be found in the works of the English Gardener, Loudon; but the naked facts in Mr. Beecher's mind spring up a living growth of ideas, ornamented with cheerful and profitable associations. He always writes on the country with a lover's minuteness and a healthy enthusiasm.

"Another series of papers, originally contributed by Mr. Beecher to the 'New York Ledger,' with the title, Thoughts as they Occur, by one who keeps his eyes and ears open, was published with the title 'Eyes and Ears,' in Boston, in 1862. Like his other writings, they are of an ingenious turn, teaching the art of profit and enjoyment in familiar objects. On his return from England in 1863, a collection of his discourses, suggested by the times, entitled 'Freedom and War,' was published in Boston. Of his many lectures or addresses, few if any have compared in interest with his oration at New York, in January, 1859, at the celebration of the Centennial Anniversary of the birthday of Robert Burns. It was rather biographical than critical, balancing with a kind but impartial treatment of the virtues and failings of the poet's character. Mr. Beecher has edited the 'Plymouth Collection of Hymns and Tunes,' a work largely in use in the churches that practice congregational singing."

The wide range of Mr. Beecher's illustrations of doctrine and religious instruction in his sermons, disdaining no resource of adaptation to the feelings and perceptions of a large audience, is well known to the public through the popular reproductions of his discourses by the agency of the newspaper press. No preacher of the times, in this country at least, has been listened to by a greater number of persons; none certainly has had his

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spoken words of the Sunday so regularly and systematically repeated in print. Of course, in any attempt to exhibit Mr. Beecher's intellectual powers, reference must be first made to his pulpit discourses. But from some of his lighter productions in literature a very just idea may be formed of the genial and mental activities, and the keen moral perceptions which characterize the man and account for his popularity. The series of light, playful little essays or literary sketches in the volume entitled "Eyes and Ears," exhibit the author in a kind of undress, as it were. He is not, to be sure, ever stilted or over dignified in the pulpit; but here he is simply an entertaining gossiper about his taste and affections in the simple affairs of every-day life, as he discourses of the domesticities, of town and country life, of a hundred innocent recreations and amusements, adapting himself to young and old, teaching new arts of enjoyment in life, unfolding at every turn in his daily walks fresh capacities of happiness. How fresh is always his perceptions of the music of nature. Listen to him as he discourses of the city and country. Can any words better reproduce what most persons have felt than the following bit of description from one of those Star Papers entitled "Country Stillness and Woodchucks." "Nothing marks the change from the city to the country so much as the absence of grinding noises. The country is never silent, but its sounds are separate, distinct, and as it were articulated. The grinding of wheels in paved streets, the clash and din of a half million of men, mingling, form a grand body of sound, which, however harsh and discordant to those near by, becomes at a little distance softened, round, and almost musical. Thus, from Brooklyn Heights, New York sounds its diapason, vast and almost endless. The direction of the wind greatly influences the sound. When the air is moist and the wind west, the city sends a roar across like the incessant break of surf upon the ocean shore; but with an Eastern wind the murmur is scarcely greater, and almost as soft, as winds moving gently in forests. But it is not simply sound that acts upon us. There is a jar, an incessant tremor, that affects one more or less according to the state of his nerves. And in leaving the city by rail-cars, the roar and jar of the train answer a good purpose in keeping up the sense of the city, until you reach your destination. Once removed from all the sound-making agencies, and one is conscious of an almost new atmosphere. Single sounds come through the air as arrows fly, but do not fill it. The crowing of a cock, the cawing of a crow, the roll of a chance wagon, and the patter of horses' feet, these, one by one, rise into the air to stir it, and sink back again, leaving it without a ripple."

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David Livingstone

Likeness from a photograph from life taken in 1867.

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DAVID LIVINGSTONE.

IN an introductory chapter of his first published book of travel, this eminent missionary and scientific explorer has given the public some interesting notices of his family history, and of the early incidents of his own life, up to the time he entered upon that career which brought him prominently to the notice of the world. It appears from this statement that he belongs to a family of great antiquity in the Highlands of Scotland. His great-grandfather fell at the battle of Culloden, fighting for the old Stuart line of kings; his grandfather was a small farmer in Ulva, one of the Western Islands of Scotland. Like many of his intelligent countrymen, he was well supplied with the legendary lore in which the history of the region was handed down with much of a more fanciful character. "As a boy," says Livingstone, "I remember listening to him with delight, for his memory was stored with a never-ending stock of stories, many of which were wonderfully like those I have since heard while sitting by the African evening fires. Our grandmother, too, used to sing Gaelic songs, some of which, as she believed, had been composed by captive islanders languishing hopelessly among the Turks. Grandfather could give particulars of the lives of his ancestors for six generations of the family before him; and the only point of the tradition I feel proud of is this: One of these poor hardy islanders was renowned in the district for great wisdom and prudence; and it is related that, when he was on his death-bed, he called all his children around him and said: 'Now, in my lifetime, I have searched most carefully through all the traditions I could find of our family, and I never could discover that there was a dishonest man among our forefathers. If, therefore, any of you or any of your children should take to dishonest ways, it will not be because it runs in our blood: it does not belong to you. I leave this precept with you: Be honest.' This event took place at a time when the Highlanders, according to Macaulay, were much like the Cape Caffres; and any one, it was said, could escape punishment for cattle-stealing by presenting a share of the plunder to his chieftain."

The ancestors of Livingstone, he does not tell us in what generation,

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were Roman Catholics, and "were made Protestants by the laird coming round with a man having a yellow staff—which would seem to have attracted more attention than his teaching, for the new religion went long afterward, perhaps it does so still, by the name of 'the religion of the yellow stick.'" This, we may presume, was in the days of his Jacobite great-grandfather. The Protestantism of his father was of the strong Scottish type. The grandfather continued his farming operations in Ulva for some time, with a large family about him, till he was led to provide for their wants to remove to the neighborhood of Glasgow, where he was employed in the business of the Blantyre Works, a large cotton manufactory on the Clyde. His sons had received the best education the Hebrides afforded, and obtained situations as clerks in this establishment. It was at his father's residence at Blantyre, that David Livingstone was born, about the year 1817.

"*Our* uncles," says Livingstone—it is characteristic of the modesty and kindly nature of the man that he thus includes, in speaking of himself, the other members of the family—"all entered his majesty's service during the last French war, either as soldiers or sailors; but my father remained at home; and, though too conscientious ever to become rich as a small tea dealer, by his kindliness of manner and winning ways he made the heart-strings of his children twine round him as firmly as if he had possessed, and could have bestowed upon them, every worldly advantage. He reared his children in connection with the Kirk of Scotland, but he afterwards left it, and, during the last twenty years of his life—he died in 1856—held the office of deacon of an independent church in Hamilton, and deserved my lasting gratitude and homage for presenting me, from my infancy, with a continuously persistent pious example, such as that the ideal of which is so beautifully and truthfully portrayed in Burns' 'Cotter's Saturday Night.'" The earliest recollection of my mother, touchingly adds Livingstone, "recalls a picture so often seen among the Scottish poor—that of the anxious housewife striving to make both ends meet."

To eke out the limited supplies of the family by his earnings, Livingstone, at the age of ten, was put into the factory as "a piecer." He did not, however, let this premature employment interfere with the studies due to this period of life. On the contrary, he made its small emoluments the means of the acquisition of the elements of learning. "With a part of my first week's wages," he tells us, "I purchased Ruddiman's 'Rudiments of Latin,' and pursued the study of that language for many years afterward with unabated ardor, at an evening school which met between the hours of eight and ten. The dictionary part of my labors was followed up till twelve o'clock, or later, if my mother did not interfere by jumping up and snatching the books out of my hands. I had to be back in the factory by six in the morning, and continue my work, with intervals for breakfast and dinner, till eight o'clock at night. I read

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in this way many of the classical authors, and knew Virgil and Horace better at sixteen than I do now. Our schoolmaster was supported in part by the company; he was attentive and kind, and so moderate in his charges, that all who wished for education might have obtained it."

In pursuing his studies in this characteristic way, by the limited but effective methods for the attainment of knowledge which seem ever open to the ingenious youth of Scotland, however humble may be their position in life, Livingstone was at the same time directing his miscellaneous readings in a path of his own, that was leading to the scientific operations of his after-life. His statement of the matter is again very characteristic of his Scottish training and opportunities. "In reading," says he, "everything that I could lay my hands on, was devoured, except novels. Scientific works and books of travels were my especial delight; though my father, believing with many of his time who ought to have known better, that the former were inimical to religion, would have preferred to see me poring over the 'Cloud of Witnesses,' or Boston's 'Fourfold State.' Our difference of opinion reached the point of open rebellion on my part, and his last application of the rod was on my refusal to peruse Wilberforce's 'Practical Christianity.' This dislike to dry doctrinal reading, and to religious reading of every sort, continued for years afterward; but having lighted on those admirable works of Dr. Thomas Dick, 'The Philosophy of Religion,' and 'The Philosophy of a Future State,' it was gratifying to find my own ideas, that religion and science are not hostile, but friendly to each other, fully proved and enforced."

The sound intellect of Livingstone was not perplexed by the errors or prejudice of those around him; nor did he suffer, as many have done under similar circumstances, his fondness for science to lead him to any disparagement of Christianity. On the contrary, as in the case of Faraday, the two grew up together in his mind, mutually supporting one another. The seed of religious culture implanted by his parents in his childhood, shot up a vigorous plant in his youth, and bore early fruit. He became deeply affected by religious motives; and, as he tells us in his simple, honest words, for which no others can be well substituted, "In the glow of love which Christianity inspires, I soon resolved to devote my life to the alleviation of human misery. Turning this idea over in my mind, I felt that to be a pioneer of Christianity in China, might lead to the material benefit of some portions of that immense empire; and therefore set myself to obtain a medical education, in order to be qualified for that enterprise." His new studies were still carried on while at labor in the factory. Every moment seems to have been turned to account. "My reading while at work," he tells us, "was carried on by placing the book on a portion of the spinning jenny, so that I could catch sentence after sentence as I passed at my work; I thus kept up a pretty constant study, undisturbed by the roar of the machinery." By this practice he acquired

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the power of completely abstracting his mind from surrounding noises; so that he could afterwards "read and write with perfect comfort amid the play of children or near the dancing and songs of savages." Out of doors, when not reading at home, he was still employed in adding to his knowledge in practical botanical and geological walks and excursions with his brothers through the surrounding country. To extend the range of his studies by diligent toil in the summer in cotton spinning, to which he was promoted in his nineteenth year, he was enabled from his savings to support himself while attending in Glasgow, in the winter, medical and Greek classes, and the divinity lectures of Dr. Wardlaw. All of this he accomplished by himself, without pecuniary aid from others, exhibiting a love of independence, and a spirit of self-reliance—peculiar traits of the man illustrated in many passages of his subsequent career. "I never," said he, "received a farthing of aid from any one, and should have accomplished my project of going to China as a medical missionary, in the course of time, by my own efforts, had not some friends advised my joining the London Missionary Society, on account of its perfectly unsectarian character. It 'sends neither Episcopacy, nor Presbyterianism, nor Independency, but the Gospel of Christ to the heathen. This exactly agreed with my ideas of what a missionary society might do; but it was not without a pang that I offered myself, for it was not quite agreeable to one accustomed to work his own way, to become in a measure dependent on others; and I would not have been much put about though my offer had been neglected."

Having finished his course of medical studies at the Glasgow University, he was admitted a Licentiate of the Faculty of Physicians and Surgeons; and after pursuing a more extended course of theological training in England, he was admitted to the pastoral office in England in 1840; and the prospects in China being clouded by the difficulties arising from the opium war, he the same year entered the service, as above stated, of the London Missionary Society, which was then engaged in a new and interesting field of labor opened by their distinguished missionary, Robert Moffat, in Southern Africa, whither Dr. Livingstone at once proceeded. After a voyage of three months, he landed at Capetown, and, immediately going round to Algoa Bay, on the eastern coast, proceeded thence into the interior, where he passed the next sixteen years of his life in medical and missionary labors among the inhabitants, accomplishing at the same time in numerous travels the most important geographical explorations. His first station was at the farthest missionary outpost of Kuruman, mid-way between the two oceans, some four hundred miles to the north of his place of landing. He soon, however, pushed farther into the interior, and cutting himself off from all European society for six months, among this section of the Bechuanas, called Bakerains, became familiarly acquainted with their habits, ways of thinking, laws and language, thus laying a foundation for his future progress among the native tribes. After various move-

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ments in the region, he selected the valley of Mabotsa, in about latitude 25° south, and 26° east longitude, as the site of a missionary station, in which he established himself in 1843. Here, having married the daughter of the missionary Moffat, he was assisted by her in his labors, while a family of children grew up about them.

It was at this settlement that his escape from the grasp of the lion occurred, which he has so vividly related in his travels.

After some years residence in this wide region, he left the missionary station which he had established in the summer of 1849, on a tour of exploration across the intervening desert to Lake Ngami, the general position of which was known to him from the report of the natives, but which had never yet been visited by Europeans. The journey was made in company with Messrs Oswell and Murray, two English gentlemen from the East Indies, who, smitten with the love of hunting and adventure, had found their way to the mission. Starting on the first of June, they reached on the first of August the lake, which they found to be a shallow body of water, about seventy miles in circumference. In a second expedition, the following year, from Kolsberg, into the unexplored region to the north, he was accompanied by his wife and three children. In another tour, in the summer of 1851, in company with Mr. Oswell, the travelers came upon the upper waters of the Zambesi, in the centre of the continent, that river having before been supposed to have its origin far to the east. In June, 1852, having sent his family home to England, Dr. Livingstone started on a journey from Capetown, which extended to St. Paul de Loando, the capital of Angola, on the west coast, and thence across South Central Africa, in an oblique direction to Quilimane, in Eastern Africa. This vast journey, which gained for Dr. Livingstone the distinction of being the first white man who had crossed the continent of Africa across its entire breadth, from ocean to ocean, occupied four years, being accomplished by his arrival at the mouth of the Zambesi in the spring of 1856. Having passed the summer in the Mauritius, in the following autumn, he returned to England by the way of the Red Sea and the overland route, reaching London in December.

A distingushed reception awaited him for his eminent missionary and scientific services. A meeting of the Royal Geographical Society was held immediately after his arrival, to welcome him. That body had previously conferred upon him its Victoria Gold Medal, for traversing Africa to the west coast; and its president, Sir Roderick Murchison, had now the pleasing duty of congratulating him in person, on the completion of his journey in the passage of the entire African continent. "It had been calculated," said he, "that, putting together all his various journeys, Dr. Livingstone had not traveled over less than eleven thousand miles of African territory; and he had come back as the pioneer of sound knowledge, who by his astronomical observations, had determined the site of numerous places, hills, rivers, and lakes, nearly all hitherto unknown;

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while he had seized upon every opportunity of describing the physical features, climatology, and even the geological structure of the countries he had explored, and pointed out many new sources of commerce, as yet unknown to the scope and enterprize of the British merchant." Shortly after this, a meeting, brilliantly attended, was held at the Mansion House, in London, at which the Lord Mayor presided, when resolutions were adopted to congratulate Dr. Livingstone on his achievements, and measures were taken for the formation of a "Livingstone Testimonial Fund," for which a handsome amount was raised.

This was the tribute mainly of the cultivated men of science of the day. Other and much larger classes were also to be brought into an intimate acquaintance with the man and his labors, by the publication, the following year, of his first book, which he entitled "Missionary Travels and Researches in South Africa: including a sketch of sixteen years' residence in the interior of Africa, and a journey from the Cape of Good Hope to Loanda, on the west coast: thence across the continent, down the river Zambesi to the Eastern Ocean." The book at once made for the author a popular reputation in England and America, and throughout the world, wherever interest was taken in the spirit of adventure, or in new geographical discoveries. Though, with somewhat of the lack of finish of the academically-trained, accomplished book maker, the style of Dr. Livingstone had a bright native vigor, well calculated to arrest the attention of his readers, and impress them with the candor and truthfulness of the man. There might be detected readily enough, by persons accustomed to look below the surface, a sense of humor, suppressed rather than encouraged, for which indeed there was occasion enough, as well as for a native Scottish element of wit, in the descriptions of the mongrel elements of savage life, frequently enough affording satirical illustrations of the exhibitions in civilized countries. The religious and other conversations with native heroes were admirably given. The observations of natural phenomena were well studied and acute; the habits of the numerous wild animals, who, in such beauty and profusion peopled the continent, were always described with zest and animation. With regard to his views on missionary operations in the country, they are indicated in his remark, that they can best be pursued, with the spread of commerce and civilization, from large healthy central stations; "for neither civilization nor Christianity can be promoted alone; they are, in fact, inseparable."

Dr. Livingstone had not been long in England when preparations were made by the Government to send an expedition, in accordance with the views which he advocated, to explore the region watered by the Zambesi, the main river of Southern Africa, which he had descended on his late return to the Eastern Coast. To carry out the plan, Dr. Livingstone was appointed Consul for South Eastern Africa, and there were associated with him as naturalists, and in various capacities, his brother Charles, Dr.

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Kirk, Messrs. Thornton, Baines, and others. A small steam launch was sent out from England in sections, to be put together on the spot, for the ascent of the river. Arriving at the mouth of the river in May, 1858, the party reached the Portuguese settlement of Tette, on its banks, in September, after which an exploration was made of its northern tributary, the Shiré, with an expedition on foot for Lake Nyassa, which was discovered in September, 1859. Dr. Livingstone afterwards pursued his way up the Zambesi to the Victoria Falls, which he had visited on his former journey, and described in his "Missionary Travels," but of which its accessories and outlets, he now made a more detailed and fuller examination. The chief peculiarity of this wonder of nature is the sudden plunge of the river when it is pursuing its course, fully a mile wide, into a great chasm or deep fissure in the hard, black, basaltic rock which forms its bed, eighty yards in width and some three hundred and fifty feet in depth, or twice the height of Niagara. In 1861, Lake Nyassa was again visited and thoroughly sailed over in a small boat by Dr. Livingstone and a select few of the company. In the month of April, in the following year, Mrs. Livingstone, who had accompanied her husband, fell a victim to a malignant fever of the region, and was buried on the shore. In 1863, the expedition was recalled by the Government. It had made numerous geographical discoveries; and, though unproductive in immediate commercial advances, had proved the possibilities of wealth in the soil on the banks of the river, particularly in the delta, for the growth of indigo, cotton, sugar, and other tropical products. Returning to England, Dr. Livingstone and his brother Charles gave to the public, in 1865, a history of the whole, in their joint "Narrative of an Expedition to the Zambesi and its Tributaries; and of the discovery of the Lakes Shirwa and Nyassa, 1858–'64."

Having in these successive explorations demonstrated the generally fertile and interesting character of the interior of Africa, in a vast region which had been formerly thought utterly barren and monotonous, Dr. Livingstone again left England to perfect his discoveries by a further investigation of the great river and lake systems which characterized the district of Central Africa, and to which, in addition to the interest excited by his own labors, there was now drawn a new excitement in relation to the possible sources of the Nile, consequent upon the successes of Burton, Speke, and others, in their revelation to the world of the great lakes Tanganyika, the Victoria, and Albert Nyanza. In this resolve to pursue his examination of the water-shed of South Central Africa, Dr. Livingstone was greatly influenced by the advice and encouragement of his friend, Sir Roderick Murchison, who, in his cheering, jovial way, said to him: "You will be the real discoverer of the sources of the Nile." The anticipation was that the lakes to the South which had been already visited might prove to be connected in their communication with one another, and their out-

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lets in some way with the great river of Egypt. To settle this problem by determining the course of the abundant streams of the region in a journey inland across the head of the lake Nyassa to the water-shed, wherever that might be; and, after examination, try to begin a benevolent mission with some tribe on the slope back to the coast "would, Dr. Livingstone calculated, be the work of two years." "Had I known," he adds, in the letter addressed to Mr. Bennett from the interior of Africa, after six years of laborious effort and the object of his journey not yet fully accomplished, "all the time, toil, hunger, hardship, and weary hours involved in that precious water parting, I might have preferred having my head shaved and a blister put on it, to grappling with my good old friend's task; but having taken up the burden, I could not bear to be beaten by it."

In prosecution of this, his third great African journey, Dr. Livingstone left England, in August, 1865, and, after visiting Bombay, proceeded to the island of Zanzibar, whence in March of the following year he crossed to the African mainland to enter upon his new field of exploration. The expedition which he led consisted of twelve sepoys from Bombay, nine men from Johanna, one of the Comoro Isles, seven liberated slaves and two Zambesi men. To carry the necessary equipments and supplies there were six camels, three buffaloes, two mules, and three donkeys. Ten bales of cloth and two bags of beads furnished the money for the purchase of provisions by the way, traffic in this part of Africa being carried on altogether by barter. The route pursued was by the harbor of Pemba, up the Rovuma river, which proved a track of incredible hardship. A path through the jungle was to be cleared for the animals at every step. The Sepoys and Johanna men became discontented with the toil, disaffected, and sought in various ways to discourage the expedition. Owing to their worthlessness, the Sepoys were discharged and sent back to the coast. They had previously so ill-treated the animals that soon not one was left alive. In August, the party, with these embarrassments, reached Lake Nyassa; and when Dr. Livingstone, in accordance with his plan, was for proceeding westward, lying reports were brought him by Musa, the leader of the Johanna men, of the cruelties of the Ma Zitu tribe beyond. In vain the Doctor protested and sought to set aside these pretences. Musa, whose purpose was formed, deserted with his men; and, to cover up his villainy on his arrival at Zanzibar in December, circulated an ingeniously contrived story, in which he related, with great circumstantiality, the particulars of a conflict between the party of explorers at a point five days' journey beyond Lake Nyassa, with a band of the Ma Zitus, in which Dr. Livingstone, with several of his supporters were killed, and the rest dispersed. Musa alone escaped to tell the tale. The story was immediately forwarded in a rather sensational despatch by the English political "Resident" at Zanzibar, to Her Majesty's Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs, and the whole civilized world was agitated at

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this melancholy termination of the great traveller's career. There were, however, persons accustomed to the duplicities of Mahometans of the type of Musa, who doubted the story. Sir Roderick Murchison never would believe it. A Mr. Young, who was familiar with life in Africa, sagely divined that the tale was a fabrication to cover the desertion of Musa and his men. An expedition was sent out from England, under the auspices of the Royal Geographical Society, in charge of Mr. Young, to test the truth of Musa's assertion by a visit to the place at which it was alleged Dr. Livingstone had been massacred. The Zambesi was ascended by the party of search in August, 1867; and, as they proceeded and reached the region about Lake Nyassa, they came upon various indications and intelligence of Dr. Livingstone's movements, discrediting the idea of his death as announced by Musa. The report of the Expedition was received in London. A letter, moreover, dated in February, 1867, about six months after the reported disaster, was received by the Royal Geographical Society, in April, from Dr. Livingstone, which effectually put at rest all fears for his safety. He was then pursuing his route in the Cazemba district and was about entering on his long and fatiguing explorations of the windings of the Chambezi river, which he ascertained to be entirely distinct from the Zambesi, with which it had been confused by the Portuguese occupants of the coast. For about two years previous to his first arrival at Ujiji, he was employed in his investigations of the Chambezi, and its various tributary streams. In the course of his journeyings, he had traced its outlet in the Lake Bangweolo, which he found connected by a river, the Luapula, with the more northerly lake, Moero. Again resuming his explorations from Ujiji, in June, 1869, crossing Lake Tanganyika, on which it is situated, he proceeded westward into the Manyema country, where he was detained for six months by ulcers in his feet, consequent upon the hardships of his travelling. On his recovery, he proceeded in his explorations coming upon a tortuous river, the Lualaba, which, after much patient investigation, he found took a northerly direction flowing from Lake Moero into the large lake, Kamolondo. To the south-west of this lake he discovered another, discharging its waters into the Lualaba, which he named Lake Lincoln, in honor of the American President's services in the cause of Emancipation, a cause ever uppermost in the mind of Dr. Livingstone. While pursuing these discoveries, and within about two hundred miles of the known waters of the Nile, he was compelled, by an utter lack of the means to proceed, in the failure of men and supplies, to retrace his course to Ujiji, where, in the autumn of 1871, sadly dispirited, he was waiting, seemingly in vain, for the stores which had been forwarded to him from Zanzibar, and which had been stolen, or were lying intercepted on the way, when he unexpectedly received intelligence, in November, of the presence in the country below of a white man, an Englishman, as it was supposed, who had come to Unanyembe, a half-way station on the route to

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Zanzibar, "with boats, horses, men and goods in abundance. It was in vain," adds Dr. Livingstone, in his despatch to Earl Granville from Ujiji (Dec. 18, 1871,) "to conjecture who this could be; and my eager inquiries were met by answers so contradictory that I began to doubt if any stranger had come at all. But, one day, I cannot say which, for I was three weeks too fast in my reckoning, my man Susi came dashing up in great excitement, and gasped out, 'An Englishman coming; see him!' and off he ran to meet him. The American flag at the head of the caravan, told me the nationality of the stranger. It was Henry M. Stanley, the travelling correspondent of the *New York Herald*, sent by the son of the editor, James Gordon Bennett, Jr., at an expense of £4,000, to obtain correct information about me if living, and if dead to bring home my bones. The kindness was extreme, and made my whole frame thrill with excitement and gratitude."

The meeting between the two travellers, in the beginning of November, 1871, will long be remembered in the exciting annals of African exploration, with the first quiet salutation as Mr. Stanley approached the man, to come into whose presence he had hazarded life and health, and undergone the severest labors. Affecting a calmness of exterior before the impassive Arabs who were in the group, he simply said on coming up, "Doctor Livingstone, I presume," to which the traveller answered, with as little apparent emotion, "Yes, that is my name." The wants of Livingstone were at once relieved, and his health restored, as he listened to the recital of the wondrous public events of the last five years, of which he had heard nothing in his seclusion from the world. In company with Mr. Stanley, Dr. Livingstone made a boat exploration of the waters of Lake Tanganyika. They subsequently parted company at Unanyembe, in March, 1872—Stanley on his way to the coast to carry the good tidings of Dr. Livingstone and his discoveries to his friends and the scientific world, Livingstone remaining with the intention when he had organized a new expedition from his reinforcements at that place, to set out on a final quest of the long-sought ultimate sources of the Nile. A new expedition which had been organized in England for the relief of Dr. Livingstone, was met by Mr. Stanley on his arrival at Zanzibar, and in consequence of the tidings which he brought—the ends proposed having been secured by him —was disbanded on the spot.

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H. G. Hosmer

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HARRIET G. HOSMER.

HARRIET G. HOSMER was born in Watertown, Massachusetts, upon the banks of the beautiful river Charles. Her mother died while she was yet in her cradle, and inheriting a delicate constitution, and being the only child left to her father, she grew up in the enjoyment of boundless liberty and indulgence. Her father, a distinguished physician, loved and respected by all who knew him, imposed but one restriction upon her—all books were to be banished, and the one object in life was to be the attainment of health. It was his theory that there was a whole life-time for the education of the mind, but the body develops in a few years. Accordingly, little Hatty, or, as she was often called, "happy Hatty," grew up under the blue sky and in the fresh air, accustomed to sun and rain, and frost and snow, long rides upon her pony, rowing upon the river, swimming, skating, walking, driving. These were the pursuits which laid the foundation of her wonderful physical strength and health in after life.

"I can see her now," said a lady to the writer who had known her in these years of her free, wild, independent life, "with her curly head, and her round, smiling face, and her little black dog under her arm, for she was fond of pets, and had a whole menagerie. Probably no child was ever left to follow her own natural impulses so systematically. It was enough for her ever-indulgent father that she was 'out of doors.' Whatever could minister to her amusement, or gratify a whim, was provided for her, and I remember a grave lawyer, a friend of her father's, shaking his head doubtfully and muttering, 'too much spoiling—too much spoiling.' This was upon the occasion of a launch upon the river of a beautiful little Venetian gondola, with its silvered prow and velvet cushions."

It is probable that the only serious occupation to which she applied herself at this early period of her life, consisted of a daily visit to a small clay pit not far from her father's house. Here she spent long hours modeling whatever forms were suggested by her childish imagination. Here was a fund of endless delight, and so regular had these visits become, and of such long duration, that whenever her absence caused anxiety at home, and

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search was made for her, she was in-invariably found working in her open-air studio, unconscious of the passage of time. After Miss Hosmer's name had become known to fame, this clay pit was often pointed out as the scene of her early artistic efforts. That the result of this unfettered, undisciplined life should be wholly satisfactory, was scarcely to be expected. Gifted with great animal spirits, a boundless activity of mind and body, it is recorded that our young artist's superfluous energy found vent in numberless mischievous pranks which amused or startled the neighborhood. "Nevertheless," says Mrs. Child, the well-known writer, who was a near neighbor for many years, "those who knew her well loved her dearly—there was never any immodesty in her fearlessness, nor any malice in her fun. Her childish tricks were those of a brave, roguish boy."

Having, by this time, acquired a fair stock of health and strength, it seemed to her father proper to adopt more stringent measures for her education; it was clear that at home no regular habits of study could be formed, and Hatty was accordingly enrolled as a student in a small private Academy conducted by the brother-in-law of Nathaniel Hawthorne. It is to be feared that books did not suit her active temperament, and that the discipline of school life became irksome to her untamed spirit, for it is on record that she was a most incorrigible pupil; and the first attempt at education was speedily brought to a close by the excellent preceptor himself, who informed her father that he could "do nothing with her." Another attempt was made, and still another; each failure being followed by a respite from intellectual labor, during which the little girl was allowed to run wild again.

It must not be supposed, however, that learning was distasteful to her, but she must learn in her own way. She read with avidity; all books which came within her reach were eagerly devoured. Natural history especially interested her, and her own room became a museum, filled with curiosities of all kinds. Stuffed birds, which she had shot and prepared with her own hand; butterflies and insects collected and arranged by herself; lizards, fish, and birds' nests, interspersed with prints, wax moulds, and clay models, presented a curious medley, and indicated her tastes and favorite pursuits. Aided by her father, she commenced and completed a whole course of anatomy, making anatomical drawings of the human frame in so masterly a manner, that several years afterward a New York publisher offered to publish them at his own expense. This was preparatory to her more serious art studies, for the hand of art was ever beckoning to her, even when her education seemed most desultory.

Thus the years passed, and at the age of fifteen our young artist was consigned to the care of Mrs. Charles Sedgwick, of Lenox, Massachusetts. Here she remained for three years, acquiring a fund of useful knowledge and forming many pleasant friendships, which after years only served to strengthen. Of her pupil, Mrs. Sedgwick was often heard to say: "She

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was the most difficult pupil to manage that I ever had; but I think I never had one in whom I took so deep an interest, and whom I learned to love so well." On her part, Miss Hosmer always speaks of Mrs. Sedgwick's patience and kindness with sincere gratitude, and with almost filial affection.

At the age of eighteen she returned to her home in Watertown, and soon after, her father and herself embarked for Europe. For years there had been a tacit understanding between father and daughter, that art was to be followed as a profession. It was her choice, not a necessity; for her father possessed an ample fortune, and she was his only child. But art to her was to be not an amusement, but a serious work. "I will not be an amateur," she said; "I shall open a studio, and work as if I had to earn my daily bread."

In this resolve she arrived in Rome, in the commencement of 1853, and presented herself to Mr. John Gibson, then in the zenith of his fame. Her words were few. "I wish to become your pupil," said she. The master was equally laconic. "I will teach you all I know myself." The next day she was installed in his studio in the Via Fontanella, a small room having been allotted to her as her own. And this was the commencement of a relation which ripened into an almost paternal regard upon his side, and an increasing interest in her progress and success. And thus for a period of nearly six years she continued to profit by the daily instruction of her master. To how few young artists are accorded opportunities so rare! But the growing requirements of space induced her to open a studio upon a larger scale, from which she subsequently removed to the one she now occupies in the Via Margatta. Numberless anecdotes are related of master and pupil, for Mr. Gibson, in spite of a stern demeanor, had a fund of humor which enabled him to appreciate and thoroughly enjoy his pupil's originality and wit. It is not too much to say, that his pupil more than repaid her kind master, in the element of brightness and cheerfulness which she brought into his life, and no day was considered well rounded and complete without a little sprightly conversation with "the signorina."

The first task which her master assigned her, was to copy an antique torso, the original of which is in the British Museum; this was to be executed larger than the original. The next work was an antique from the Vatican; this was to be copied smaller than the original, that the correctness of her eye might be tested: both works were completed to his great satisfaction. The third was to copy the bust of the Venus of Milo, and after that she might make an ideal head, herself selecting the subject. That would be a great step, and caused proportionate delight. Vigorously she commenced the copy, and it was far advanced towards completion when the iron which supported the clay suddenly snapped, and her work lay a shapeless mass upon the floor. Nothing daunted, however, she replaced the clay, and repeated the work with the same energy as before. Perhaps nothing ever excited her master's admira-

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tion more than the equanimity with which his pupil bore her misfortune. Soon after this, having obtained permission to design something of her own, she modeled a head of "Medusa," not as the horrible Gorgon, but as a beautiful maiden. The rich hair is just beginning to wreath itself into serpents, and the expression of despair and agony in the face is very striking. This bust has always been a great favorite, and the artist has executed it many times in marble.

Her good friend, Mr. Wayman Crow, of St. Louis, desired to possess the first statue which she should execute in marble. The choice of subject was left with the artist, and she selected "Beatrice Cenci in Prison." This is a charming statue, full of grace and feeling. The historical head-dress of Guido's picture is preserved, and the features of that charming portrait are rendered in marble as faithfully as the difference of material will permit. This statue was exhibited in Boston, and was then transferred to the Mercantile Library in St. Louis, where Mr. Crow generously allowed it to remain to adorn the Hall. Other works followed in rapid succession, among which was that gem of sculpture, the little Puck. Perhaps, of all modern statues, the little Puck is first favorite. What a moment of fun and drollery was that in which he was conceived! What delicious pertness in that upturned toe! It is a laugh in marble. One of the many copies which have been executed of this charming little statue is in the collection of the Prince of Wales, and it has found its way to Australia and the West Indies.. The Crown Princess of Germany, on viewing it in Miss Hosmer's studio, exclaimed, "Oh, Miss Hosmer, you have such a talent for toes!" It is said that Miss Hosmer has realized $30,000 from this statue alone.

How opposite is the spirit in which "Zenobia Captive," is conceived! Grand, stately, solemn, she treads in the triumphal procession of Aurelian. The head is bowed, though the queen is unconquered. She hears not, she sees not, she still lives in her absent empire. The rich train sweeps the ground, and the golden chains fetter the hands, but her thoughts are still free, and she is still with her people in Palmyra. When this statue was first exhibited in London, it was whispered that Miss Hosmer was not its real author, that its execution was due to an Italian sculptor, and one journal went so far as to publish this report as correct. No time was lost, and an action for libel was immediately commenced against the journal by the indignant artist. Finding that Miss Hosmer was in earnest, the editor proposed an apology, which was accepted, upon the condition that Miss Hosmer's lawyer should dictate the apology, and that it should be submitted to her for approval. The condition was acceded to, and the apology was published. By the kind permission of Almon Griswold, Esq., of New York, for whom the statue was executed, it was exhibited in several of our principal cities, and attracted universal attention and admiration.

Visitors to the Dublin Exhibition of 1865, will remember a group of which the marble was slightly tinted,

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and around which a circle was always formed. It was the only statue in that vast hall which was "honored by the attendance of a special policeman." It was Miss Hosmer's "Sleeping Faun," of which so much has been said and written, that the statue may truly be pronounced classical. The London *Times* thus speaks of it: "In the groups of statues are many works of exquisite beauty, but there is one which at once arrests attention and extorts admiration. It is the 'Sleeping Faun' and 'Satyr,' by Miss Hosmer. It is a curious fact that amid all the statues in this court, contributed by the natives of lands in which the fine arts were naturalized thousands of years ago, one of the finest should be the production of an American artist. But she has received her inspiration under Italian skies, in presence of the great models of ancient Greece and Rome. Hawthorne's description in the 'Transformation' of the Faun of Praxiteles has been quoted, in a great measure applicable to this masterpiece of Miss Hosmer." A writer in the French *Galignani* gives a further description of it: "The gem of the classical school, in its nobler style of composition, is due to an American lady, Miss Hosmer. She is the last, and we believe the only pupil of Gibson, and his teaching may be traced in every line of the 'Sleeping Faun' which she exhibits. The attitude is graceful and natural. He is seated, reclining against the trunk of a tree. partly draped in the spoils of a tiger. The child-faun, so happily introduced into the group, squatting behind the tree, and with mischievous archness binding the Faun to the tree with the tiger's skin, gives not only symmetry to the composition, but that life which is so seldom found in such reminiscences of antiquity. Miss Hosmer in her 'Sleeping Faun' reaches the highest excellence." We must add our own testimony to the archness, grace, and poetry of the whole group: it is impossible to see it without recalling the author of Puck, and as we gaze at the sweet, gentle sleep of the graceful youth, we almost fancy ourselves in the sweet-scented wood, and under the sunny skies of his ideal world. This beautiful statue was purchased for a thousand pounds by Sir Benjamin Guinness, at the private view on the day previous to the opening of the exhibition. A slight difficulty arose, as the statue was not for sale. Sir Benjamin offered to double the price, and actually placed another thousand pounds ($5,000) in the hands of the Director of the Sculpture Department, saying, "that if money could buy that statue he would have it." Miss Hosmer, upon being informed of this, wrote to Sir Benjamin, assuring him that she deeply appreciated his generosity, and that it was indeed a pleasure to know that her work would be in the possession of one who valued it so highly; that he might look upon the statue as his own, but that she could not take advantage of his too great liberality, and requested that the second $5,000 should be returned to him. We fear it is but seldom that such an act, so honorable to both, can be recorded in the history of the Fine Arts. The group has since been twice repeated—once for the Prince of Wales,

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always a great admirer of Miss Hosmer's genius, and once for Lady Ashburton, who also possesses its pendant, "The Waking Faun."

If the "Sleeping Faun" is the expression of complete repose, so the "Waking Faun" is that of life and movement. He wakes and suddenly catches the little satyr, who struggles in his grasp. He is imprisoned beyond the possibility of escape, but so gently and tenderly that we do not fear for his safety—indeed, he seems quite as much amused in his new position as when knotting the tiger's skin. This work finely exhibits the artist's skillful power of grouping, for the position selected is one of the most difficult it is possible to conceive, but its grace and litheness are perfect. When these two statues are viewed together, we think it will be difficult to pronounce a preference.

Upon entering the studio, the first work which presents itself to us is a cast of the "Siren Fountain," executed for Lady Marian Alford. The sculpture consists of a siren, who, sitting among the shells which form the upper basin, sings to the music of her lute. Three little cupids upon their dolphins are checked in their career, to listen to the music. These little creatures are full of spirit and motion. The dolphin of one is refractory, and nearly unseats his rider; but, fascinated by the sweet sounds, he pays no attention to his impetuous charger, but looks up to discover from whence they come. When the fountain plays, the little cupids are seen through the falling water, as if beneath its surface, which greatly enhances the poetical effect. The fountain is executed of three different shades of marble, and is most rich and elegant.

Perhaps the most important, certainly the most complicated, of all Miss Hosmer's works, are "The Golden Gates," for Earl Brownlow, upon which she has been employed for several years. They are to be cast in gold, and when completed will be about 17 feet high. The upper portion contains three figures of the Air, Earth, and Sea; while two of the long bassi-relievi, immediately beneath, represent the poetical and the practical view of the Earth, and the remaining two the poetical and the practical view of the Sea. The central portion, which is the most beautiful, is occupied by twelve circular bassi-relievi, representing the twelve hours of the night, commencing with "Eolus Subduing the Winds," next, "The Descent of the Zephyrs," "Iris Descends with the Dew," "Night Rises with the Stars," "The Hours' Sleep," "The Moon Rises," "The Dreams Descend," "The Falling Star," "Phosphor and Hesper," "The Hours' Wake," "Aurora Veils the Stars," and "Morning." Each of these bas-reliefs is a poem, full of exquisite thought and feeling, and studied to the highest degree of finish. The architecture is enriched with ornaments, symbolical of Earth, Air, and Sea, forming an effective setting for the bas-reliefs, while the whole is surrounded by a boldly modeled festoon of fruit and flowers, as a frame inclosing the whole picture. The number of bas-reliefs is nineteen and they contain more than eighty figures. Some idea may, therefore, be formed of the

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labor and patience necessary to complete the work. When Sir Charles Eastlake, the late President of the Royal Academy, first saw the design, he said, "it will immortalize her."

His words were afterwards repeated to Miss Hosmer, who replied, "Ah! he meant *immetallize*."

Miss Hosmer is now (1874) engaged upon two works which are destined for our own country—one a monument to the memory of Mr. Edward Everett, to be cast in bronze and placed over his remains at Mount Auburn; the other a monument to Mrs. Letchworth, of Buffalo, consisting of a recumbent figure and richly ornamented pedestal, in the style of the fine monument to Queen Louise at Charlottenburg. Mr. Letchworth has erected a magnificent mausoleum, in which the monument is to be placed, one of the few specimens of that style of architecture in America.

Perhaps the statue upon which Miss Hosmer has labored with the greatest *affection*, is that of the Queen of Naples as the "Heroine of Gaeta." An ardent admirer of the royal lady and an intimate personal friend, Miss Hosmer has devoted herself to this beautiful work of art, with an assiduity which such respect and affection alone could inspire. We will quote again from the London *Times*, a description of the work: "I think the public will decide, when the work shall be completed and exhibited, that Miss Hosmer has succeeded in giving grace and elegance to a modern dress, in a life-size statue of the beautiful Queen of Naples; which, when finished in marble, will be on view in London. The costume is that commonly worn by the unfortunate Queen during the siege of Gaeta—a riding habit, nearly concealed by a large cloak, the ample folds of which adapt themselves to the sculptor's purpose, nearly, or quite as well, as any ancient drapery. The *pose* of the queen is erect, and slightly defiant—defiance less of the foe than the danger and death that surround her. While the right hand rests upon the fold of the cloak where it is thrown across the shoulder, the other points downwards to a cannon ball that lies close at her foot. The head, surmounted by a splendid coronet of hair, is slightly thrown back. It is well known in Rome that during the Queen's residence here she was a frequent visitor to Miss Hosmer's studio, and sat many times for the statue now in progress, which will thus have the value of perfect resemblance, as well as that of a very noble work of art. It is an extremely handsome head, somewhat disdainful, and breathing the utmost firmness and resolution. The Queen's hair is celebrated for its length, and thickness, and sable beauty; let down, she might drape herself with it like Godiva; massed in a bold, broad braid above her polished brow, it forms a natural crown, more beautiful than goldsmith's skill could supply. In the statue it really has much the effect of a diadem, while the rich folds and tassels of the cloak might be taken, without any stretch of the imagination, for a royal robe. Royal, indeed, she was in Gaeta; immovable under the deadly shower of Cialdini's shells, more than at any other moment of her

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short and hapless reign, and the sculptor has had a happy idea, in placing for sole inscription upon the pedestal, "Gaetal Maria Regina." Of the riding habit, only the part nearest the throat is seen, and a small portion of the skirt below the folds of the cloak. A slender, nervous foot, broadened by the firmness of the tread, is advanced to the edge of the pedestal, and the brain and lacing of the modern *bottine* are so arranged as to give it almost the appearance of a sandal, and harmonize it with the remainder of the costume. The work vindicates, at a glance, the artist's high reputation, and I venture to predict, that when worked out in marble, it will be considered her master-piece."

We have thus endeavored to enumerate some of Miss Hosmer's principal works. They do not embrace all upon the list, but are some of the most important. The ladies of the "Women's Centennial Executive Committee" have addressed her a letter, requesting her to design and execute a statue expressly for the Centennial Exhibition of 1876, "as being at once an American, and the foremost woman in the world in her art." And Miss Hosmer, who is always ready to lend a helping hand whenever the question of Woman arises, has promised to accede to their wish.

In person, Miss Hosmer is rather under the medium height, and, writes Mrs. Child, "her face is more genial and pleasant than her likenesses indicate; especially when engaged in conversation, its resolute earnestness lights up with gleams of humor. She looks as she is—lively, frank, and reliable; she carries her spirited head with a manly air, and her broad forehead is partially shaded with short, thick, brown curls, which she tosses aside with her fingers, as lads do." Her manner is decided, perhaps somewhat abrupt; and I remember a little notice of her in her studio, which appeared, some years ago, in one of our American journals: her manner of speaking was compared to "an express train crossing a short railway bridge." Her eyes are most expressive, and are of that uncertain hue which varies from violet to black; her conversation is original and most inspiriting, and no one can long be oppressed with low spirits when her voice is heard. Few women are so witty, though she herself declares that she never said but one witty thing. It was while driving one day with Miss Cushman, and crossing the Tiber, her friend remarked, "How angry the river looks." "Ah!" said Miss Hosmer, "some one has crossed it.' This, she maintains, is her one witty speech, but no one would venture to assert this but herself.

To close this sketch of Miss Hosmer without some allusion to her favorite horses would be a serious omission; riding is her passion, and there are few horsewomen of the present day who can approach her in skill and daring, mounted upon her magnificent Irish hunter, "Numero uno," as he is called by many of his Italian admirers, "who can jump his own height;" and attired in her short hunting skirt, she is a well-known figure at the "meets" upon the Roman Campagna, and it is said that the day Miss Hosmer is out they are sure to find a

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fox. In spite of her admirable horsemanship, she has had many hair-breadth escapes, and is known to have said that her appropriate monument would be the "Baker's Tomb," she has had so many rolls. Some time since, in the winter at Rome, she sustained a severe accident by her horse falling at a ditch and rail. The violence of the shock was so great that the pommel and the stirrup-strap were both broken; but, before many in the field were aware of the disaster, Miss Hosmer was again in her saddle, and broken as it was, joined in the chase, arriving in time to secure the honors of war, as Prince Humbert, in admiration of her heroism, presented her with the brush. Previous to her last visit to Rome, the Empress of Austria, herself a renowned horsewoman, declared that there was nothing she looked forward to with more interest in Rome, than to see Miss Hosmer ride.

Possessing an independent fortune, Miss Hosmer is free from the professional anxieties which assail too many artists. Her work, as we have already said, is not her necessity, but her choice; but there are few artists, whatever their circumstances, who labor so indefatigably. Riding is her only pastime, and that is as much for health as pleasure. Gifted with rare talents, with the happiest temperament, and in the constant exercise of an art which to her is an ever new delight, there are few human beings upon whom Fortune has so truly smiled as upon Harriet Hosmer.

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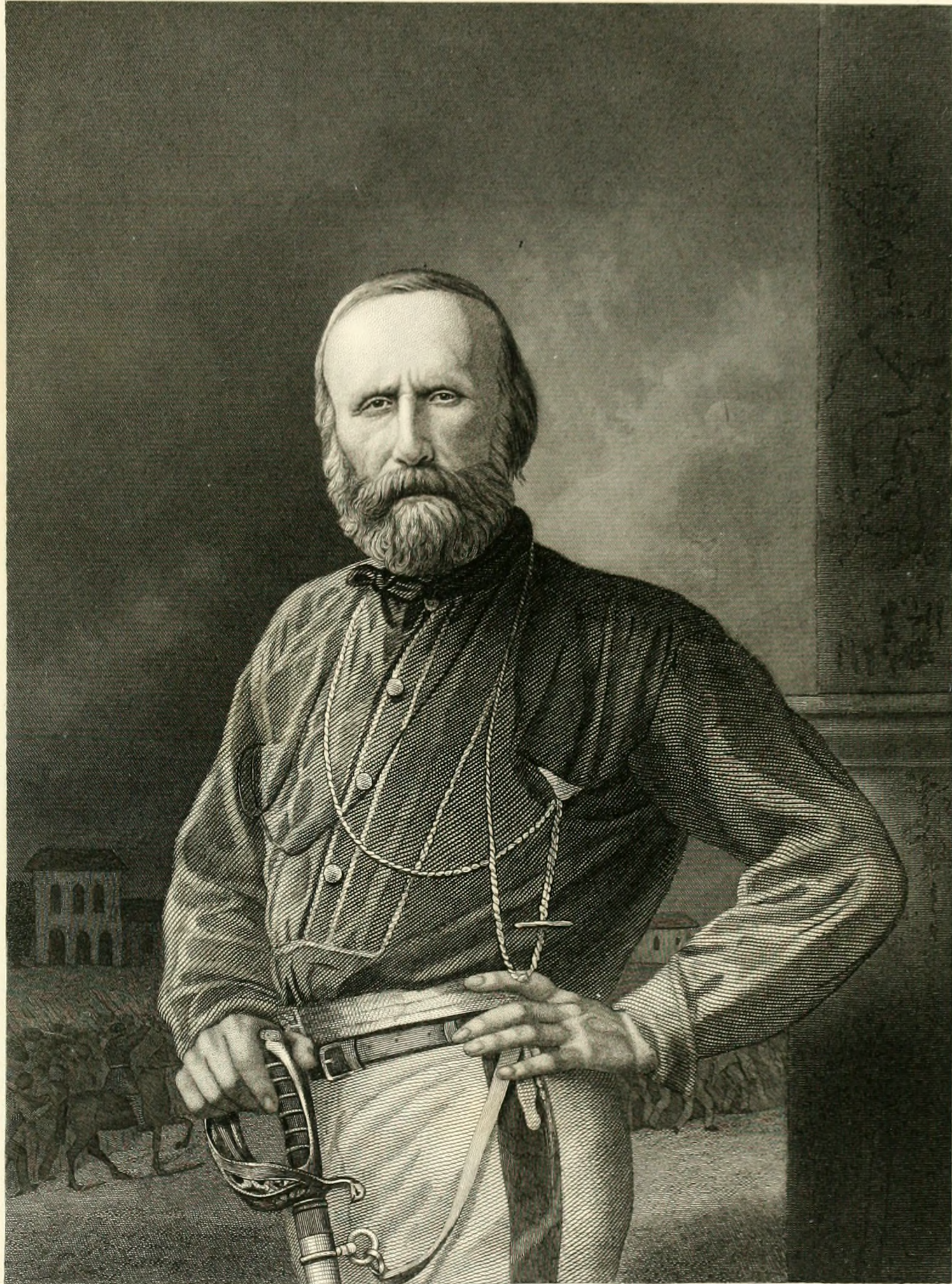
JOSEPH GARIBALDI.

GUISEPPE, OR JOSEPH GARIBALDI, as his Christian name is written in English, the renowned partisan leader and enthusiastic deliverer of the present Italy, was born at Nice, in that country, in the summer of 1807. His father a sailor, and the son of a sailor, of the race of hardy navigators in that maritime region, Joseph was brought up in the sea-faring occupation of the family. Before, however, he made his first voyage as a sailor, he had, as a school-boy, with a spirit and resolution characteristic of his whole career, attempted a little adventure of his own, which he has narrated in a little passage of his autobiography: "Becoming weary of school in Genoa," he says, "and disgusted with the confinement which I suffered at the desk, I one day proposed to several of my companions to make our escape and seek our fortune. No sooner said than done. We got possession of a boat, put some provisions on board, with fishing-tackle, and sailed for the Levant. But we had not gone as far as Monaco, when we were pursued and overtaken by a 'corsair,' commanded by good father. We were captured without bloodshed, and taken back to our homes, exceedingly mortified by the failure of our enterprise, and disgusted with an abbé who had betrayed our flight."* This little affair indicates two things: the child's early and courageous love of adventure and disregard of all ordinary hazards, and the fact that his education was conducted with some regularity, or he would not have chafed under it, or endeavored to escape from it. He, indeed, speaks in his recollections of two faithful teachers, Padre Gianone and Signor Arena, and of the influence of an elder brother Angelo, who encouraged him in the study of his native language, and the reading of Roman and Italian history, which he pursued with interest.

But the sea was his first love, and its independent mode of life, in traversing the Mediterranean in a school of navigation, in vessels for the safe management of which so much depended upon the skill and resources of the mariner, was well calculated to generate that passion for freedom

* The Life of General Garibaldi, written by himself; translated by his friend and admirer, Theodore Dwight, New York, 1859.



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G. Garibaldi

Likeness from a portrait from Life.

Johnson, Fry & Co. Publishers, New York.

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and indomitable self-reliance which strengthened with his growth.

His second voyage, in a vessel of his father's, was made to Rome, and was followed by several others with his parent and various voyages to the Levant, in which he rose to the rank of captain. In one of these voyages he was left ill in Constantinople, and his stay in that city being protracted by the war with Russia, he engaged, as a means of support for a time, as a teacher of children in the family of a widow, to whom he was introduced by a friend. It was on a voyage, about the time of his coming of age, or a little later, which he made to the Black Sea, with a young Ligurian, he tells us he was "first made acquainted with a few things connected with the intentions and plans of the Italian patriots; and surely Columbus (he adds) did not enjoy so much satisfaction on the discovery of America, as I experienced on hearing that the redemption of our country was meditated. From that time I became entirely devoted to that object, which has since been so long appropriately my own element. The speedy consequence of my entire devotion to the cause of Italy was, that on the fifth of February, 1834, I was passing out of the gate of Linterna, of Genoa, at seven o'clock in the evening, in the disguise of a peasant—a proscript. At that time my public life commenced, and a few days after I saw my name for the first time in a newspaper; but it was *in a sentence of death*." He had been implicated in some of the plots set on foot by Mazzini, in violation of the authority of the King of Sardinia. Escaping to Marseilles, he distinguished himself there by his characteristic self-sacrifice, in attending upon the sick in a cholera hospital, which had been abandoned in terror by the nurses. Before embarking as mate of a vessel on a new course of voyaging, he had the opportunity of saving a youth from drowning in the harbor, by plunging after him into the water. On such occasions, where a fellow being was in peril—and they have often occurred in his adventurous life—he never thought of peril to himself. A ready sympathy with others, and a tenderness of feeling, were his characteristics from childhood, when "a very simple accident," he tells us, "made a deep impression on my memory. One day, when a very little boy, I caught a grasshopper, took it into the house, and, in handling it, broke its leg. Reflecting on the injury I had done to the harmless insect, I was so much affected with grief, that I retired to my chamber, mourned over the poor little creature, weeping bitterly for several hours."

From Marseilles, Garibaldi made a voyage to the Black Sea, and afterward passed over to Tunis in a frigate built for the Bey. Finding no employment there to detain him, he next set sail in a vessel from Marseilles for Rio Janeiro, in South America, where he met a fellow Italian patriot, Rosetti, with whom he engaged in some commercial business which was soon abandoned, "a short experience," he says, "convincing us that neither was born for a merchant." The Republic of Rio Grande being then, in 1836, en-

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gaged in a struggle for independence with Rosas, the Dictator of Buenos Ayres, who was endeavoring to consolidate his authority over the States bordering on the La Plata, Garibaldi entered into an arrangement to proceed to the assistance of the former province. Engaging a small vessel for a cruiser, which he named "The Mazzini," he sailed along the coast with a small band of companions as their leader, and entered the waters of the La Plata. An opportunity was soon afforded to test the courage of his companions—his own was fully assured. In an engagement with two Brazilian vessels he was wounded, receiving a bullet in the neck which rendered him senseless during the remainder of the action. When he recovered his senses, he found that the enemy had retired and a victory had been won. Apparently in immediate prospect of death, he was landed at Gualaguay, where he received surgical attention, and recovered to enter upon a series of entraordinary military adventures. The task entrusted to him, says one of his biographers, "would have been enough to overwhelm one less able or less resolute—to him it proved but the training for greater deeds. Obliged to fight by sea and land alternately, he had to create a fleet by capturing the vessels of the enemy, and to organize a military force from whatever elements happened to present themselves. The war in South America had been concluded about two years, and Garibaldi had retired with his wife (a Brazilian lady, who had shared all the perils of his campaigns) to a farm he possessed and cultivated with his own hands, when intelligence of the revolutions of 1848 reached Montevideo. Italy was in arms! Accompanied by Annita, his two young sons, and his faithful band, he lost no time in setting sail for Europe, but with all his haste he did not arrive until the fortune of battle had already turned against Italy. His first impulse was to offer his sword to Charles Albert, but his reputation as a Mazzinian had preceded him, and the king recoiled from accepting the services of a republican leader. It was indeed too late; and though the local government of Lombardy readily entered into an arrangement with Garibaldi, and he accordingly took the field, advancing in the first instance as far as Brescia, and afterwards carried on a guerilla warfare for several weeks in the mountainous district around the Lake of Como, and in the Valtellina, his exertions had no other effect than to lay the foundation of that fame which afterwards drew so many volunteers to his standard.

"A wider field of exertion soon presented itself. Rome proclaimed the republic after the flight of the Pope; his old friend and associate, Mazzini, was elected triumvir, and Garibaldi hastened to lead his band, swelled by the adventurous spirits of every part of Italy, from the Lombard hills to the smooth Campagna. Thwarted in his schemes and circumscribed in his actions, Garibaldi added daily to his fame and to that of his band by continual sallies and skirmishes, testifying at once to his bravery and his skill. When the capitulation was agreed to, disdaining to share its benefits, he left Rome by one

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gate while the French entered by another, and took the road towards Terracina, followed by his troops. His object was to reach Venice, where Manin yet held aloft the flag of Italian nationality, and his soldiers pledged themselves anew never to desert their chief. But the way was long, the road intercepted by many enemies. By a series of skilful manœuvres, Garibaldi eluded pursuit; but the long marches and counter-marches among the Apennines, the apparent hopelessness of the enterprise, combined to thin his little band, and having reached the neutral territory of San Marino, he released his soldiers from their oath, himself perceiving that his only chance of arriving at Venice was to embark in a fishing-boat with a few followers. He then made his way to Cisnatico, on the Adriatic shore, accompanied by Annita and his children, and also by Ugo Bassi, Cicerovacchio, and two hundred faithful adherents who had still clung to his fortunes, and had answered his offer of their liberty by the cry 'To Venice! to Venice!'

"A more painful trial than any he had yet experienced now awaited Garibaldi. His beloved and loving Annita, the wife who had shared all his toils and adventures, the heroic woman who had smiled on him through all his sufferings, and brightened every dark hour of his life, the only rival of Italy in his affections, was about to be taken from him. Although on the eve of child-birth, she had ridden by his side throughout the march, and after braving the heats of the July sun and the cold of the mountain camp, she had cheerfully embarked with her husband and his friends. The little fleet of thirteen fishing-boats were already within sight of the Lagune, when it was attacked by an Austrian brig, which succeeded in sinking or capturing eight among them. Five escaped, almost by a miracle; but previous fatigue and mental exhaustion had made this last trial too much for Annita. She was already dying, when Garibaldi, in the vain hope of relieving her, again sought the coast. To avoid pursuit, which they felt to be near at hand, the patriots separated, never to meet again in this world. Ugo Bassi, Cicerovacchio, and his young sons, speedily fell into the hands of the Austrians, and were shot down like hunted beasts. Garibaldi went on his way, followed by his children and by Origoni, who now and then relieved him from the task of carrying his dying wife. At length he was fain to lay her down in a peasant's empty hut. Heedless of peril, Origoni hurried in search of medical aid, and the husband alone watched by the exhausted sufferer. Nature could bear no more, no assistance was at hand, and in a few hours there Annita died. Jealous of the right of bestowing the last cares on one so dear, with his own hands Garibaldi dug her grave, in the depths of a wild Romagnole forest, and laid her in a spot known to himself alone. He wandered on, and one day the widowed husband and his orphan sons arrived at Genoa, a port of safety, how, he would perhaps be himself scarcely able to tell.

"Again Garibaldi set forth on his wanderings. For a short time he betook himself to the United States, and

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gained his bread by daily labor. He was in the city of New York in 1850, and was for some time occupied in the candle manufactory at Staten Island of his countryman and friend, Signor Meucci. Hence he again went to South America, but he found no opening for active exertion, and the home he had once loved had lost its charm. He next nudertook some commercial voyages to Genoa, and thus obtained a little money, with which he purchased the small island of Caprera, off the coast of Sardinia. He there settled down with a few devoted friends, resigned to live by the humble avocations of husbandry until a day should come when he might again draw his sword for the freedom of Italy. The only political act he performed during these long years of deferred hope was the signature he hastened to append to the subscription for the hundred cannons of Alexandria, opened by Manin, an act slight in appearance, yet of deep significance, since by it he proclaimed his separation from Mazzini, and his adherence to the national party, under the leadership of Victor Emmanuel.

"It was, perhaps, this act that induced the king and Count Cavour to turn to Garibaldi as soon as the preparations of Austria, in 1859, made war probable. The summons to Turin found him at Caprera, and he hastened to obey. An attachment far more sincere than is usual between a king and his subject speedily united Victor Emmanuel and the partisan chief, and Garibaldi was named lieutenant-general, and entrusted with the command of a body of volunteers about to be formed under the name of Cacciatori delle Alpi.

"A new and more brilliant phase of the life of Garibaldi than any that had preceded it, was now about to begin. The necessity of awaiting the arrival of the French artillery for a while confined him to the walls of Casale, along with the other Italian divisions; but when the forward movement was decided upon, the king wisely thought that such a leader, and such soldiers as he had formed, might be better employed than in sharing the slow advance of the regular army, and he acceded to the wish of the chief to be first on Lombard soil.

"The allies were still behind the Sesia, when Garibaldi, after drawing off the attention of the Austrians by a feint to the north of Arona, suddenly crossed the Ticino at Sesto Calende during the night of the 22d of May, and marched upon Varese, a small town among the hills. From this time to his arrival at Salo, on the Lake of Garda, a month later, his campaign seems more like the pages of a romance than the sober narrative of history. During many days he was entirely cut off from all communication with Piedmont, for the Austrians held the shore of the Lago Maggiore; and his reports to the king, and the despatches of Count Cavour, were conveyed by the smugglers; even this means being uncertain and insecure. Opposed to him were 17,000 foot, with six cannon and two divisions of cavalry, commanded by General Urban, supposed by the Austrians to be the only man capable of coping with Garibaldi in irregular warfare. The steady progress of the

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allies soon allowed Garibaldi to push on eastward. The 5th of June, he put his little force on board two steamers he had captured at Como, and steamed up the lake to Lecco, on his way to Bergamo, leaving the whole country behind him free from Austrian troops, and peaceably obeying the Sardinian commissioner, to whom every municipality had hastened to carry its homage as to the representative of their lawful king. Marching by the hills, to avoid a body of the enemy whom he knew to be posted on the high road, Garibaldi was already within a few miles of the strong and ancient city of Bergamo, when a deputation of its inhabitants came to inform him that the Austrians, terrified at his approach, had spiked their cannon, abandoned their magazines, and fled during the night. His entry was a triumph of which any sovereign might have been proud. The people hailed their deliverer as if he had been a god descended from heaven; but no homage, no ovation, could turn Garibaldi from his task. Before dismounting, he went to meet a column of Austrians reported to be advancing from Brescia, and put them to flight, the volunteers charging with the bayonet as gaily as if they had spent the previous twenty-four hours in repose.

"At Bergamo, the Cacciatori enjoyed a few days' rest, while their general went to Milan, to receive the commands and well-merited encomiums of the king, who, in his enthusiasm, declared that he would joyfully lay aside his crown and the cares of state, to be the leader of a free corps, the vanguard of the Italian army. Garibaldi returned decorated with the gold medal for military valor, the choicest reward his sovereign could bestow, and loaded with crosses and decorations for his brave men, whom he was about to lead to an enterprise more daring than any that had gone before. Throughout the campaign, Garibaldi and his sons were the favorite heroes of Italy. He was everywhere the precursor of the regular armies, and every other issue for popular enthusiasm being dammed up by the strict discipline inculcated in all the revolutionized provinces, it rushed with double force into the only channel left open. The troops of Garibaldi were the last to exchange shots with the enemy, as they had been the first to leave the sheltering ramparts of Casale. The chief was at the foot of the Stelvio, and had already engaged the Austrians in several sharp fights, winning successes he was forbidden to follow up, lest pursuit should lead to a violation of Germanic territory, when he received intelligence, first of the armistice, then of the convention of Villafranca, in July, which secured Lombardy to Victor Emmanuel, and left Venice for a time under its old Austrian rule. This termination of the war was a great disappointment to Garibaldi, whose first impulse was to write to the king and throw up his command; but, at the entreaty of his sovereign, he was speedily induced to withdraw his resignation."*

Following the occupation of Lombardy by Victor Emmanuel came the demand from France, as a compensa-

* Westminster Review, Oct., 1859. Article, "Garibaldi and the Italian Volunteers."

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tion for services, and an adjustment of territory consequent upon the additions to Piedmont, for the cession of Savoy and Nice. When this measure was presented to the Sardinian Parliament, in April, 1860, Garibaldi sat as deputy for Nice, his native town, and was one of its most violent opponents, declaring that the treaty made him a foreigner in his own country. Quickly upon this came the grand revolt which was to bring him upon the stage as the chief actor in the new military drama, to end in the realization of the long-cherished dream of her poets and patriots—the union of Italy in one kingdom. While Piedmont and Turin were engrossed with the intrigues of the French emperor, a revolution was breaking out at the other extremity of the peninsula, which was to throw the kingdom of the two Sicilies into the hands of Victor Emmanuel. Francis II. succeeding his father, Ferdinand II., on the throne of Naples, was prosecuting with all his power the hereditary system of repression and tyranny, which had seemed to be the constant fate of the Neapolitans; and the cruelty and oppression of his government had become so great, that Lord John Russell, the English premier, wrote to the minister of his country at Naples, declaring that, in the probable event of an insurrection, and the overthrow of the dynasty, no support could be expected from England. In the beginning of April, a revolt had broken out at Palermo, in Sicily; the garrison was attacked, and the city placed in a state of siege, while the movement spread over the whole island. Garibaldi saw the opportunity, and set to work to organize an expedition to assist the insurgents. The government, at the time, disclaimed all connivance in the matter; but, after the successful result of the enterprise, the king, in an address to the people of Southern Italy, declared, "they were Italians fighting for their liberty; I could not, I ought not to restrain them." Garibaldi accordingly had little difficulty in sailing out of Genoa on the night of the 5th of May, with a body of about two thousand volunteers. On their voyage they lay for a day or two off the fortress of Talamona, on the Roman frontier, where their chieftain issued a proclamation to the Italians, invoking their aid for the Sicilians against a common enemy.

Garibaldi landed at Marsala on the 10th of May, and on the 14th joined the insurrectionary troops at Salemi. Here he proclaimed himself Dictator of Sicily, in the name of Victor Emmanuel. The first encounter with the Neapolitan army was at Calata Fimi, and the royalists were defeated and driven from all their positions. Garibaldi then advanced towards Palermo, where he organized a provisional government. Then followed his successes on the mainland, and the somewhat confused dictatorship of the leader at Naples, succeeded by the entry of Victor Emmanuel into the city as king. Upon this event Garibaldi left abruptly for his home at Caprera, not, however, without some intimation of future movements in a proclamation to the people. "Providence," said he, "has given Victor Emmanuel to Italy. Every Italian should bind himself to him. All should gather close around

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him. By the side of the *Re galantuomo* every strife should disappear, every rancor be dissipated. Once again I repeat my cry to you—to arms, all! all! If the month of March, 1861, does not find a million of Italians under arms, alas for liberty! alas for Italian existence!"

Garibaldi now passed a year in comparative quiet at his island home at Caprera, without other reward than the satisfaction of having accomplished so much for the liberation of Italy. He would have had the movement completed by the extension of the national sovereignty over the Papal States and Venice, the withdrawal of the French troops from Rome, and the final removal of Austrian authority from the entire peninsula. Encouraged by the patriotic declarations in the Italian Parliament, he was led, in the summer of 1862, to believe that if any attack was made upon Rome, the whole Italian people would rise and join in it, and that Napoleon, in the face of such a demonstration, would withdraw the French garrison. He began to organize a movement in Sicily. After seizing the arms of the National Guards at Corleone, his followers encamped at Ficuzza, near Palermo, and they afterwards took up their head-quarters at Catania, on the coast. On the 3d of August the king issued a proclamation, in which he declared that the government had no part in the movement, and that the dignity of the crown and parliament should be maintained. General Cialdini, accordingly, was sent to Sicily, but, before he arrived, Garibaldi and his volunteers had crossed the straits. Garibaldi, upon landing, marched against Reggio, but was met and repulsed by a detachment of the army. General Cialdini then arrived at Reggio, and sent forward General Pallavicino to overtake Garibaldi. He found the Garibaldians encamped on the plateau of Aspromonte. A simultaneous attack was made in the front and on the flank of the camp. In the heavy fire at the opening of the engagement, Garibaldi and his son Menotti were wounded, and his followers, seeing themselves completely hemmed in, surrendered. Garibaldi was conveyed as a prisoner to Spezzia. The wound in his ankle caused him great suffering, for the ball was not extracted until several weeks afterward. His position as a prisoner was very embarrassing to the Sardinian government. He had been taken in arms against the king; but it was impossible to punish as a traitor the man who had given Sicily and Naples to the kingdom. The only course, therefore, was a free pardon, and a general amnesty was extended to him and all his followers. Garibaldi now had leisure for a longer residence in his island home at Caprera, a wild, rocky abode seamed with valleys, the agriculture of which had been quite neglected, till, with his accustomed energy, he turned the spot to account.

Pursuing our outline of Garibaldi's public career, we find him, in January, 1864, resigning his seat in the Chamber of Deputies, and paying a visit a few months after to England, where he was received with the utmost popular enthusiasm. A banquet was given to him by the Lord Mayor of London, and the people in large num-

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bers hailed him as the representative of liberty and reform. While this national reception was still in progress, from some motive of policy, he suddenly withdrew from his crowd of entertainers, who were preparing welcomes for him throughout the kingdom, and returned in the Duke of Sutherland's yacht to Italy, accompanied by the duke and duchess. In 1866, he was again engaged in efforts for the union of the Papal States to the Italian kingdom; but the government still considering his measures impolitic, checked his movements by his arrest and conveyance to Caprera, where he was guarded by a ship of war. Escaping from the island, he renewed his agitation of the Roman question, and was again arrested after a conflict with the French and pontifical forces at Mentana, and confined in the neighborhood of Spezzia for a short time, till an attack of sickness afforded a convenient excuse for his return to his old home.

The "isolation" at Caprera, however, was again broken, when, in the autumn of 1870, Garibaldi, at the call of the provisional government of the French republic, crossed the frontier to take up arms with the defenders of the country, in their self-sacrificing but hopeless contest with Germany, after the fall of Napoleon at Sedan. He was invested with the command of the irregular forces in the Vosges, having also under him a brigade of the Garde Mobile. But partisan warfare, however daring, could not long withstand the systematic crushing movements of the overpowering German forces, and before the war was ended, Garibaldi abandoned the now hopeless cause, and returned again to his island home. Previously to entering upon this foreign service, he published a work, the English translation of which is entitled "The Rule of the Monk; or, Rome in the Nineteenth Century."

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Painted by | Alonzo Chappel

Fanny Kemble

Likeness from a painting by Sir Thomas Lawrence

Johnson, Wilson & Co. Publishers, New York

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FRANCES ANNE KEMBLE.

FRANCES ANNE KEMBLE, daughter of Charles Kemble and Maria Theresa Decamp, was born in England in the year 1811. In the biographical account of John Philip Kemble and of Mrs. Siddons, we have traced the career of this distinguished family for several generations. After the retirement of these its two most illustrious members, Charles Kemble remained upon the stage to represent the genius of the race.

His wife, like the wife of Garrick, came to England a dancer from Vienna, and both before and after her marriage was universally admired as a charming actress in light comedy.

She retired from the stage in 1819, to re-appear after a lapse of ten years for a single night, on an occasion of particular interest. This was the 5th of October, 1829, when her daughter Frances, or as she was then called, Fanny Kemble, who had been educated at a French convent, and already had exhibited extraordinary literary talent, entered upon her brief but brilliant theatrical career in the character of Shakespeare's Juliet. Abbott was the Romeo, her father Charles Kemble, the Mercutio, and Mrs. Charles Kemble, the Lady Capulet. Mrs. Siddons then, at the age of seventy-four years, witnessed the performance, and was moved to tears by the associations of the hour. The young actress was received with the greatest enthusiasm. Miss Kemble's performance of Juliet, after an extraordinary run of some thirty nights, was followed at intervals during the season by Belvidera, in "Venice Preserved," Euphrasia, in "The Grecian Daughter," Mrs. Beverley, in "The Gamester," and Isabella, in the "Fatal Marriage"—every one a leading part in which Mrs. Siddons had been eminent; and all of them the young actress had sustained to the admiration of crowded and intelligent audiences.

She entered, it is said, suddenly on the stage, after a resolve of only six weeks' standing; but the preparation was of a far longer date in her life-long, thorough education, and the fine instincts for her art she inherited from her parents.

In the summer recess, Miss Kemble played through an engagement at Edinburgh. Supported by the distinguished compliments of such men as

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Scott and Prof. Wilson, Miss Kemble entered on her second London season in October. She performed Juliet at the outset; at the end of November played Mrs. Haller in "The Stranger," and in December made a decided hit in Calista, in the "Fair Penitent," another of Mrs. Siddons' great parts. Leaving for a time the somewhat faded, worn-out sentiment of the school of Rowe and his associates, the maintenance of an interest in which makes her success all the more remarkable, we find her in January reviving the character of Bianca in the tragedy of "Fazio." A month later we have Beatrice, in "Much Ado about Nothing," acted to her father's Benedict, which became one of her favorite personations; and this in turn is relieved by another great Siddonian character, Lady Constance in "King John," which she performed with spirit, though the older play-goers in the audience may have missed the lofty figure and robust physical energy of the Siddons. In April, Massinger's "Maid of Honor" was revived for her, that she might act the part of Camiola. The performance of Lady Teazle in May closes the round of her characters, in Miss Kemble's second London season.

Her third and last season in the great metropolis commenced in the following October with Belvidera, succeeded by Queen Katharine, in a revival of "Henry VIII." Here, again, as in Lady Constance, her stature and youthful appearance were disadvantages hardly to be overcome by her intellectual appreciation of the character. In January of the next year, 1832, she appeared as the heroine in a translation from Dumas by Lord Leveson Gower, entitled "Catharine of Cleves;" and in March in "Francis I.," an historical drama with passages of much vigor, which she had composed two years previously.

The play was produced at Covent Garden simultaneously with its publication in March. It was received with favor during the month, and was succeeded by another original play, in which Miss Kemble achieved one of her most brilliant successes. This was Sheridan Knowles' "Hunchback," which was brought upon the stage early in April, the author acting the part of Master Walter; Fanny Kemble, Julia; and Charles Kemble, her lover, Sir Thomas Clifford. The character of Julia was well fitted to display the best powers of Miss Kemble. Since Beaumont and Fletcher there had been nothing of the kind on the stage more agreeable. Miss Kemble made the character of Julia her own at the start, and while she remained on the stage it was one of her most admired performances. We have heard it pronounced her best.

With this triumph Miss Kemble closed her last season in London. The next was to open in America, where she was destined to pass the most important years of her life. She set sail with her father for New York on the 1st of August, and arrived in the city on the 4th of September, a leisurely voyage of the packet-ships of those days, with much more of personal interest and observation than usually gathers about the rapid steam-transit of the present time. We do not know

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where to look for a more vivid account of the incidents of this old packet traveling than we find in the famous American "Journal" of Miss Kemble, which she published a few years after. There is the study of character forced upon the fellow-passengers, in their inevitable intimacies; the keen sense of the harmonies of nature and all the "skiey influences;" and, to a thoughtful mind, a finer consciousness of the needs of the soul than is often experienced in the hackneyed bustle and resort of the world. All these are reflected in Miss Kemble's pages. If in her personal talk she sometimes makes a confidant of the reader in the expression of what may appear egotistical trifles, these are but the fringe of substantial sense and feeling, which often need such diversions. When there is anything serious to be discussed, the true womanly —it may be said, also, manly—sentiment is never at fault.

On their arrival in New York, Mr. and Miss Kemble took apartments at the American Hotel, at the corner of Broadway and Murray street, in what was then considered a fashionable quarter of the city. After a few days spent in observation of the town and making the acquaintance of "his Honor the Recorder," the gallant Philip Hone, and other celebrities of the day, the Kembles entered upon their engagement at the Park Theatre, within view of their residence. Kemble led the way by a performance of Hamlet, on the 17th of September, and was succeeded by his daughter Fanny the next evening in Bianca. The following night Miss Kemble played Juliet to her father's Romeo; on the 21st, Lady Teazle to his Charles Surface; three days after, Belvidera to his Pierre; the next evening, Beatrice to his Benedict; on the 27th, took her benefit as Mrs. Haller in the "Stranger;" on the 28th, played her original character of Julia in "The Hunchback" to her father's Sir Thomas Clifford; on the 1st of October, Lady Constance to his Falconbridge; and on the 2d, Bizarre in "The Inconstant" to his Young Mirabel. The repetition of "Much Ado About Nothing" and the "Hunchback" closed this first engagement, in which no less than ten plays had been produced in twelve nights, with an average receipt of over twelve hundred dollars a night; the highest on the night of the joint performances being fifteen hundred and twenty dollars, on the representation of Romeo and Juliet, and fourteen hundred and twenty-six dollars on the benefit night.

Miss Kemble was highly appreciated by her New York audiences, which embraced many persons of fine critical taste, familiar with the best theatrical representations of their day. After performing with her father a round of her characters in Philadelphia, and being received, as at New York, in the best society, Miss Kemble returned to fulfill a new engagement in the latter city, in which she added to her previous parts those of Mrs. Beverley and Isabella. A second visit to Philadelphia followed, during which she acted for the first time in America, Lady Macbeth, Violante in "The Wonder," and Katharine in "Katharine and Petruchio."

Before returning to New York, the

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Kembles visited Baltimore and Washington, where they were presented to the President, General Jackson, whose manners the lady pronounces "perfectly simple and quiet, therefore very good." Here she experienced some annoyance, from gossiping reports, to her prejudice, based on some random talk with a gentleman of the place while riding; an explosion at the theatre was threatened, but nothing occurred, though the paltry misrepresentation followed her to Philadelphia, where it appeared in the shape of a handbill thrown into the pit, calling upon the company to resent an alleged insult. To the credit of the audience, it only made them the more vociferous in their applause; but her father thought it necessary to assure the house that the whole thing was a falsehood, while Fanny stood at the side scene, scarce hearing what he said, "crying dreadfully with fright and indignation." "How I wished," she adds, in her *bizarre* journalistic style, "I was a caterpillar under a green gooseberry bush!" Escaping from these perils of playfulness in conversation, Miss Fanny is again at New York, acting an engagement with her father in March, after which she visits Boston, plays at the Tremont Theatre, and in the summer makes a journey through the State of New York, by way of Albany and Trenton Falls, to Niagara, where her journal closes in July, with a rhapsody over the great cataract.

Miss Kemble continued to appear on the stage in America till the spring of 1834, when she acted, for the last time in the country, at the Park Theatre in New York, in April, personating, in addition to her former characters in America, Queen Katharine in "Henry VIII.," to her father's Cardinal Wolsey, and Estifania in Ben Jonson's "Rule a Wife and Have a Wife," to Charles Kemble's Leon. Having not long before, in the month of January, been married to Mr. Pierce Butler, a gentleman of fortune and proprietor of a large plantation in Georgia, she now retired from the stage; but hardly to private life, for the publication of her "American Journal," the following year, kept her name for a long time prominently before the public.

Part of the married life of Mrs. Butler was passed at her husband's estate at the South. When the subject of slavery, in the progress of the Rebellion, engrossed the attention of the world, in 1863, she published a "Journal of a Residence on a Georgia Plantation in 1838–'39," which, under the changes which have since occurred, has now become a most valuable contribution to the history of a past era.

In 1841, Mr. and Mrs. Butler visited England. Her mother had died in 1838, but she found her father living in retirement from the stage, his last performances, at the Queen's request, having taken place in 1840.

The married life of Mr. and Mrs. Butler proved unhappy, adding another to the many infelicities of genius in this relation. There appears to have been an incompatibility of temper and temperament, which, after several years of alienation, ended in a permanent separation. Eminent counsel were engaged on both sides, among them Rufus Choate, of Boston, on behalf of the lady, and George M. Dal-

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las, of Philadelphia, for her husband. The interference of the Pennsylvania courts was invoked for a divorce, which was finally granted in 1849.

While these proceedings were going on, Mrs. Butler again visited Europe, and joined her sister Adelaide, now become Mrs. Sartoris, at her residence in Rome. The Diary in which she recorded the impressions of this tour, published immediately after its completion in 1847, entitled, "A Year of Consolation," has much of the vivacity of her American "Journal," with greater fullness and richness of style. It is exceedingly happy in its descriptions of adventure, of scenery, of objects of art, of manners and society, as she traverses old fields, to which her earnestness and freshness of observation impart a new interest.

Having witnessed the ceremonies attending the death of Gregory XVI., and the enthusiasm attending the accession of Pio Nono in 1846, Mrs. Butler left Rome in December; and when we meet her again it is in England, returning for a season to her old triumphs on the stage. She made her first appearance at the Theatre Royal, Manchester, in Julia, in "The Hunchback," on the 16th of February, 1847, and before the close of her engagement played Juliana, in "The Honeymoon," Lady Macbeth, Juliet, and Queen Katharine. Having been absent from the stage for thirteen years, it was anticipated that her acting might exhibit defects from the want of skill and practice; but nothing of this was observable to affect her performances. On the contrary, they were remarkably well sustained, and exhibited more than the old elaboration and finish. There was the same imposing attitude and gesture, the same fine expression of the passions, the same intellectual appreciation of the subtle workings of nature. A critic, who had witnessed her first performance of Juliet, at Covent Garden, again noticed and commented the emphatic "Amen," in the scene with the nurse, "closing her correspondence with the inferior nature, and announcing her transition into self-responsibility, that Juliet, so late a nurseling, was now left alone in the world—that the child was gone, and the heroic woman had begun her part." At the end of April, she appeared in London at the Princess' Theatre, and again triumphed in Julia and Juliet. She remained for some time in England, for in February and March of the next year we find her again at the Princess' Theatre, in an engagement with Macready, acting Lady Macbeth, Queen Katharine, Desdemona, Ophelia, and Cordelia. These performances were followed in April by a series of Dramatic Readings, given in the afternoon at Willis's Rooms, King street, London, from the "Merchant of Venice," "Much Ado About Nothing," "The Tempest," and "As You Like It." In this, Mrs. Butler was following a distinguished precedent in the public "Readings" of Mrs. Siddons, and as in her case, the experiment was eminently successful.

Returning to America, Mrs. Butler re-appeared before the public, not on the stage, but pursuing the new path she had opened for herself in London, on a simple platform, as a reader of

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Shakespeare. The first of these "Readings," by which she became known in this country to a more numerous class of persons than had witnessed her performances at the theatre, was delivered at the Masonic Temple, in Boston, on the evening of January 26, 1849. The play chosen was the "Tempest," which was followed by "The Midsummer Night's Dream" and the "Merchant of Venice." She was received with the utmost enthusiasm by crowded audiences, the net profits on each occasion being estimated at about three hundred dollars. The "Readings" were continued in Boston through February, and in March were delivered at New York, at the Stuyvesant Institute, on Broadway, opening with "Macbeth," which had been recently read in the same place by the eminent tragedian, Macready, and where the poet Dana the evening before had, in his course of lectures on Shakespeare, delivered his admirable discourse on the same play.

In addition to the literary works we have enumerated, Mrs. Kemble published in 1837 a second tragedy, entitled "The Star of Seville," and an adaptation of Dumas' "Duke's Wager," from her pen, was presented at the New York Astor Place Opera House, by Miss Julia Dean, in 1850. The "Star of Seville," like her former historical drama, turns upon royal licentiousness and bloody revenges, leaving Estrella, the heroine, the only refuge of madness and death. Like the former two, the style is somewhat of the cast of the old English dramatists.

The collected "Poems" of Mrs. Kemble, of which several editions have been published in England and America, are of a miscellaneous character, in the class of occasional verses, but generally with a predominant expression of personal feeling. They exhibit the disappointments of life, the burden of its gloom and mystery an intimate sense of the sympathies of nature, with the disquiet or longings of the heart—the effort of a strong nature breaking through the darkness in bursts of lyrical inspiration.

Mr. Pierce Butler died in Georgia, in 1867. Of late Mrs. Butler, resuming her maiden name, has been known as Mrs. Frances Anne Kemble, while her life has been passed in retirement.

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